The Nation.

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The Week.

That the Hague tribunal has found for us in the case of the Pious Fund is gratifying, but the favorable decision is far less welcome than the fact that this long-standing issue has been duly presented to an international court, and that the United States and Mexico have the honor of first committing a case to this permanent tribunal. The court has decided that, since the Government of Mexico had undertaken the administration of a trust fund for the benefit of the Roman Catholic Church of California, it was bound to pay the interest to the beneficiaries, notwithstanding the cession of California to the United States. If the Republic of Mexico accepts the decision without appeal—and this may fairly be assumed—the principle will have been established that an eleemosynary or religious foundation is not rendered void by change of nationality on the part of the beneficiaries. This principle is not new. Generally, conquering or cessionary powers have respected private foundations in newly-acquired territory. But the particular application of the principle in the case of Mexico is unusual and interesting. The Hague tribunal finds that the mere relinquishing of all civic and political control of a given territory does not of itself terminate special fiduciary duties of a private or benevolent nature. Since the old trust, called the Pious Fund, is judged to be in full vigor, we shall have the curious spectacle of the Roman Catholic Church in California receiving a handsome annual subvention from the Government of Mexico. The decision of the Hague court will tend to give confidence to all donors whose gifts lie in debatable territory, while it should tend to make all governments loath to assume extraordinary fiduciary functions. A "Pious Fund" would have been an unseemly object for embittered diplomacy, and much more for war. The new court could have had no subject which better lent itself to calm and dignified deliberation, and the successful conduct of this first case will greatly enhance the prestige of the Hague tribunal.

When the coal operators requested the appointment of a "sociologist" on the Commission of Arbitration proposed by them, they seemed to show the wisdom of the serpent, for no one knows what a sociologist is, and the appointee might easily have been President Baer, Senator Platt, or Mr. J. P. Morgan. It remained for President Roosevelt, assuming for the nonce the functions of an academy of letters, to determine authoritatively what a sociologist is. It means for the purpose in hand "a man who has thought and studied deeply on social questions, and has practically applied his knowledge," or, in more concrete language, it means Grand Chief Clark of the Order of Railroad Conductors. If the operators counted upon a pale, professor-like person, they reckoned without a President who makes not only appointments but definitions. A sociologist, then, is a leader of a labor organization, and preferably a railroad conductor. No one can complain of this decision, for there is no scramble for the appellation in academic circles. Prof. Walter A. Wyckoff, whose first-hand experiments as a wage-earner all will remember, writes to the *Sun:* "My subsequent work has not acquainted me with this science of sociology, of which I know nothing, but with the much more definite field of the science of economics." This disclaimer is characteristic of the academic feeling of today. It appears, then, that the word sociologist was going begging when the President took it up, restored it to honor, and gave it to the railroad conductors of the land, whose opportunities for observation and thought on society and social subjects are exceptional, as nobody can deny. This restitution should assure the President a place among humorists, at least.

It is in keeping with the solid traditions of Massachusetts law-making that a bill for the incorporation of labor unions is to be discussed at the approaching session. There is an especial appropriateness, too, in the fact that the first serious attempt to fix legal responsibility upon these powerful but irresponsible organizations should be made in a State which strictly regulates the incorporation of capital. If the trade-union bill should become a law, it would simply show that the State of Massachusetts is determined to control all great combinations which affect the common weal, whether composed of capitalists and investors or of laborers. Naturally, the labor leaders see in the proposed incorporation "disadvantages without corresponding benefits," but then, nobody likes to be deprived of power and saddled with responsibilities, while if the objection raised by a Boston labor leader, that "where you have law you have litigation," were valid, we should be obliged to abolish all laws whatsoever. The discussion of this bill cannot but be salutary, and we trust that many other legislatures will follow the example of Massachusetts in this matter.

At first reading the press abstract of President Eliot's notable address given on Friday before the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, conveys the impression of an unwonted pessimism. He declares that our common schools have failed signally to cultivate general intelligence, as is evinced by the failure to deal adequately with the liquor problem, by the prevalence of gambling, of strikes accompanied with violence, and by the persistency of the spoils system. In fine, he believes that the schools have failed at nearly all points in their task of training their pupils for citizenship. Such an indictment from such a source will receive the most careful consideration, and yet many will feel that the apparent gloom of President Eliot's survey is not without rhetorical intention—that he hopes to shake the country out of a too great satisfaction with itself, and to win a more liberal and intelligent support for the schools. Certainly, the task which lies before the schools of educating immigrant children in Americanism is unprecedented and of appalling difficulty, and it may well be that some such extraordinary effort as that recommended by President Eliot may be necessary to meet a pressing emergency. Yet it will not do to hope more from the schools than they can give, more than they ever gave when our forefathers held education in almost equal veneration with religion. A trained intelligence may indeed check the potential drunkard, wastrel, and rioter, but education readily becomes the tool of the unscrupulous boss, the professional gambler, and the corrupt labor leader.

One "M. S. Quay, Chairman," has been caught violating a Federal law. Instead, however, of being haled into court and made to suffer the legal penalty of his misdemeanor, which, under the statute, is punishable by "a fine not exceeding $5,000, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years, or both," he has been let off with a sharp lecture and a warning from the President. The law in question is the one forbidding any Senator, or Representative, or any Federal officer whatever, to solicit campaign subscriptions, either directly or indirectly, "from any officer, clerk, or employee of the United States." Quay had unblushingly set about assessing Federal employees in Pennsylvania. Having appointed them himself, he naturally considered them his own. What had the President to do with the case except to act as the clerk of the Pennsylvania Senator? As for a little thing like a law, that was, of course, only a joke to Quay. But his unlawful course was brought to the attention of the Civil Service Commissioners, and they asked the President to get the opinion of the Attorney-General on the scope and validity of the

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statute, and to issue an order. This Mr. Roosevelt did on Saturday, notifying all persons concerned that the provisions of law as construed by the Attorney-General must be "obeyed and enforced."

This is excellent, as far as it goes, and the President's order is said to have spread joy among Federal employees in Washington and elsewhere. They feel that they have found protection against their oppressors. They can show the President's signature to all "assessment" callers, and quote his words to prove that every employee of the Government may "contribute or not exactly as he pleases." But we cannot help feeling that a good way to make the country believe that the law is to be "enforced," would be actually to enforce it in the case of a man taken red-handed, as Quay was. It is all very well to protect the clerks, but it would be better to punish the Senator. Quay in court, Quay fined $5,000, Quay, better still, imprisoned for three years, would do more for the cause of civil-service reform than the most vigorous language in President Roosevelt's vocabulary.

Expectations that, after the wholesale disfranchisement of the colored voters in the South, the whites would divide politically on more rational issues than the legacies of slavery and the war, and that what was left of the negro electorate would be treated fairly, seem far from realization in North Carolina. Although the operation of the new registration law in that State will reduce the colored vote to a negligible quantity, the bogey of negro rule is still dangled before Democratic eyes. A negro balance of power between a divided white vote is the form it has taken now; and therefore the ticket must be voted, as before, by the party label, and all agitation for needed reforms on which the Democratic party is not a unit must be tabooed, lest a growing white Republican organization should stimulate the negro to approach the ballot-box by way of the spelling-book. Meantime, extra-legal obstacles are being placed along that road. In some counties, according to one Democratic paper of the State, the registrars are excluding practically all the negroes; and one over-zealous board has earned the censure even of the Chairman of the Democratic State Committee by rejecting a negro preacher, who read and expounded the Constitution "beautifully," but who, in the writing test, spelled the word "divided" with an "e" in the first syllable. With such machinery in their hands, Democratic fear of negro domination is pure invention.

In the expressions of administrative disapproval of the "Lily-White" Republican movement in the South, there is evidently a deeper purpose than the holding of the negro vote in the North at the November election. Delegates to the Republican National Convention are to be chosen in less than two years, and Southern Republicans can be largely instrumental in nominating a President, if not in electing one. Hitherto the vote of the Southern delegations has been too often sought by the distribution of patronage and the bald expenditure of cold cash. The present method, if our surmise of its purpose be correct, is much better. In the only two appointments of importance made by the President in Alabama —the District Judge and the District Attorney—he has shown no disposition to buy political favor with public patronage. The Palmer and Buckner Democrats chosen for those positions were selected because of their recognized ability, and, as they are again within the regular Democratic organization, their appointment cannot be charged to an attempt to build up a white Republican party. With the other plan of increasing the number of white Republicans in the South the President has no sympathy, and his recent official announcement on that point, coupled with the further assurance of Surveyor Clarkson in a letter to the North Carolina negroes, ought to remove a false impression which has prevailed largely in the South. The white Republicans, in both Alabama and North Carolina, who thought they were pleasing the President by their course, should have known Mr. Roosevelt better than to have supposed that he would desert the educated and property-owning negroes left in the electorate by the Democratic suffrage laws, whatever the spoils-seeking whites of the South or the Grosvenors and Crumpackers of the North might think about it. There is political acumen, too, as well as justice, in the President's attitude. Despite the unfair franchise laws, the colored voters in the Republican party in the South outnumber the whites, and it would be a reckless Republican Convention which dared to disregard that strength of numbers.

In spite of general reports of a dull political campaign, the *Evening Post* published on Monday striking evidence that at least one class in the community is taking a deep interest in it. As the questions at issue are chiefly economic, inquiries were addressed to the gentlemen connected with the department of political economy in our leading colleges and universities, and the volume and outspokenness of the replies obtained from them are of great significance. On the subject of the Constitutional power of Congress to legislate directly against the Trusts, the answers reveal a becoming modesty. The professors disclaim any title to speak as Constitutional lawyers. Nor is there entire agreement among them as to the advisability of Congress exercising large powers of control, even if it possesses them. But on one point there is almost complete unanimity. Immediate repeal of tariff duties behind which the Trusts take refuge is pronounced to be the political duty of the hour. President Roosevelt's suggested plan of a tariff commission is treated with varying degrees of respect, but is, on the whole, roughly handled. "The alleged scientific, non-partisan tariff commission of experts is a humbug," writes Professor Daniels of Princeton. Nay, adds Professor Sumner of Yale, it is "an exploded humbug." Other professors speak of the plan with almost as great contempt and aversion. It is only a trick to "befuddle the public"; it is merely a way of "shelving the issue"; it is a "cloak," an "evasion," and so on. In view of the fiasco and failure which all previous tariff commissions present, it is evident that college opinion as a whole is not going to be caught by this mouldy corn. Will the President take heed?

The lack of discipline in the army is well brought out in the annual report of Judge-Advocate General G. B. Davis. With a considerably smaller force in service during the year ending June 30, 1902, than in the twelve months previous to June 30, 1901, there was a decrease of only 754 in the number of trials. One out of every twenty men in the service was tried and convicted, and this in the face of the repeated assertions of Republican orators and newspapers as to the saintly character of the "boys in blue" engaged in killing off the Filipinos. Gen. Davis's figures show that a pretty serious condition of affairs has existed. There were, for instance, 760 convictions for drunkenness on duty, and 477 convictions for larceny, in addition to several hundred others involving robbery or larceny or attempts to commit them. Seventeen soldiers were convicted of rape or attempted rape, nineteen of murder or manslaughter, and forty-six of intent to commit murder. No less than 1,081 soldiers were punished for desertion, 846 for absence without leave, and 263 for sleeping on post. A new crime added to the category is "disrespect to the memory of President McKinley," for which four men are languishing in jail, just as men are punished in Europe for lese-majesty. Finally, 2,645 were dishonorably discharged.

During most of the period under consideration the army has had an enlisted strength of about 70,000, exclusive of Filipino troops. In this connection the statement of an officer now on duty in the Philippines is of interest. His regiment, a new one, proceeded to the archipelago within eight months of its formation, composed mostly of beardless youths under twenty-one. The rainy season and the presence of cholera have made anything like strict discipline im-

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possible. "The history of other regiments out here is simply degeneration, and I do not hope for any improvement in drill and discipline while in these islands." With officers talking this way, what will Secretary Root say? We suggest that he court-martial Gen. Davis for the publication of an outrageous libel on the army, in saying that one in every twenty of our mercenaries is culpable. No anti-Imperialist ever said so cruel and cowardly a thing as that, particularly in the middle of a Congressional campaign.

The proposed subsidy from the British Government to the Cunard Steamship Line has called out Sir Spencer Walpole in a strong argument in opposition to it. He shows, first, that it is not true that Great Britain has been losing her relative position in the ocean-carrying trade during recent years. Although she allows perfect freedom to foreign ships in her own coasting trade, as well as in her colonial and foreign commerce, her own tonnage entered and cleared at British ports has been, for a period of thirty years, almost exactly two and one-half times greater than that of all other nationalities together. If other countries had been outstripping her, it is probable that some signs of the fact would be exhibited in the returns of British commerce, which is free to the ships of all nations. But it is said that Germany is forging ahead at a great rate by reason of subsidies paid principally to the North German Lloyd. Sir Robert Giffen has taken the trouble to procure the correct figures. He shows that the profits of the unsubsidized portion of the North German Lloyd fleet, from 1895 to 1900, increased from 1,900,000 to 21,700,000 marks, or elevenfold. The profits of the subsidized portion increased in the same period from 1,200,000 to 1,800,000 marks, or by only 50 per cent. The subsidized portion is composed of ships running to eastern Asia and western Australia.

In the opinion of Sir Spencer Walpole, the very magnitude of British shipping makes a policy of subsidies impossible. If it were applied impartially and uniformly it would bankrupt the nation, but if it were confined to particular ships it would put their competitors at a disadvantage. "If, for example," says Sir Spencer, "a subsidy were given to exceptionally fast vessels sailing to New York, it would make it more difficult for other steamers, either with passengers or cargo, to hold their own on that route. For the sake of encouraging a service of some convenience and luxury, the subsidy would help to destroy a much larger and much more valuable industry." Moreover, he thinks that if subsidies were granted to the Cunard Company, the owners would rely on the Government rather than on themselves for the success of their line. They would fall into the habit of the captains of fishing-boats at the time when bounties were paid to them, of whom it was said that they went to sea to catch the subsidy, not to catch the fish.

There was reason enough for an Irish night at the opening of Parliament on Thursday. The Irish members cannot relish the general application of the Crimes Act and the imprisonment thereunder of several of their members, and naturally they took the first opportunity of protesting. In the form of their protest they distinctly scored. Mr. O'Donnell, lately out of his patriot's prison, succeeded in being suspended; Mr. O'Brien, by demanding in a session which is to include the Education Bill, the London Water Bill, the Indian Budget, and the Uganda Railroad, at least one day for the discussion of Irish affairs, got Mr. Balfour to deny the request because it came from the Irish party. So the first day was made to yield a very colorable case of British oppression and Irish wrongs. "Tay Pay" O'Connor contrived to be silenced, if not suspended, and the climax of the evening was reached when the free lance Mr. Healy claimed his privilege "as a native of Uganda," and so thoroughly scarified the Government for its Irish policy that his Ugandan seemed to reading members to be of the family of Montesquieu's satirical Persian, or of Goldsmith's Chinese "Citizen of the World." Nobody, the dispatches report, enjoyed the performance more than Mr. Balfour, and yet he can have felt only a tempered joy, since Mr. William Redmond's statement for the Irish Nationalists, that they must take the first opportunity of "hurling the Ministers from office," should mean that the Irish members are going to withdraw their eighty-odd votes from the Education Bill, which, with 750 amendments (nearly 600 of which are from the Opposition), was already reasonably contentious matter. If the Irish prefer the chance of upsetting Mr. Balfour to bringing the Catholic schools under state support, Mr. Balfour will find the margin of safety for the Education Bill distressingly small.

Chancellor von Bülow's attitude before the German Reichstag, as he pleads for reasonable grain duties, is very different from the manner of Bismarck in demanding support for a Government measure. And the milder tactics seem to promise smaller success than the old method of dragooning a majority. To the Chancellor's statement that prohibitive duties on grain and meat will prevent the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, paralyze trade, and discredit Germany before the world, the Agrarians reply in effect that they must have the duties reported by their committee, and that the Squirearchy must be first considered and its demands granted. Von Bülow's traditional allies have betrayed and flouted him, precisely as the ultra-protectionist Republicans humiliated President Roosevelt; and it is to be feared that the Agrarians are even less amenable to public opinion than our own Republican Bourbons. The personal intervention of the Emperor seems the only card unplayed. If that should be tried, and fail, the reciprocity treaties and the great canal scheme would go over indefinitely, and the Government would be forced to seek support elsewhere than among the Agrarians, to yield to whom, the Chancellor pointed out on Thursday, would be suicidal.

It was hardly to be expected that the Chamber of Deputies which passed the Associations Act would fail to support Premier Combes for enforcing it. So Friday's vote of confidence, which gained the handsome plurality of ninety-six, must be regarded merely as a formal expression of party loyalty. Later, when the question of authorizing and reopening the suppressed monastic schools arises, the concrete and difficult question will first be before the Deputies, who have so far voted only on the general principle. M. Combes, in demanding supplementary legislation against the religious orders, breaks out the signal of no compromise, and engages himself to pursue relentlessly his anti-clerical campaign. It may be doubted if he can long survive as the pronounced opponent of the Church in a country which, despite the present Radical-Socialist majority in Parliament, is still profoundly Roman Catholic.

The "rectification" of the Algerian-Moroccan frontier through the acceptance of the extreme French claims is precisely what might have been expected. It has been understood that, to the west and south of Algeria, France might make her own terms with the wild desert tribes and with the Sultan of Morocco, and that no other European Power would object to such extension of the French sphere of influence. Furthermore, the cession of the Tuat oases by the new treaty is the relinquishing of territory that the Sultan has neither governed nor possessed, and if the French gain control of the great caravan route to central Africa, they merely assume a useful function which no one has previously exercised. Accordingly, this accession of territory to the African domain of the French republic is without immediate significance. It opens possibilities of African trade, but then the French have shown little capacity for this form of commerce; and it brings somewhat nearer the time, still apparently distant, when the Moroccan question will become acute.

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KILLING THE MANDARIN.

Whether the President should or would have intervened forcibly in the late coal strike if the Governor of Pennsylvania had refused all military protection to the operators; whether (the protection actually extended having proved inadequate), had nothing come of the President's attempt at a peaceful settlement, he should or would have brought Federal troops upon the scene, or allowed the famine to drag on indefinitely—are questions which we shall not discuss. He chose, if we may use the expression, to exercise his good offices rather than his office. The *modus vivendi* which has resulted is wholly salutary in itself; but, so far as we know, this fact is due to the admirable firmness of the operators, for we are quite in the dark as to the arguments or entreaties addressed to them by the Administration after the futile conference of October 3. As in the Debs case, it has been made manifest that of some strikes *national* cognizance will be taken; otherwise, that precedent has been neither followed nor extended. Nor has anything been done to assure "the people of our country," in Mitchell's sovereign phraseology, that the same situation may not confront them hereafter if those whom he calls in the same breath "our people" are so minded. Indeed, in his patronizing letter to the President of October 16, Mitchell broadly intimates that no Federal force, however large, could have stamped out intimidation and persecution in the coal regions; in his own words, "a hundred thousand troops could not have enabled the operators to start their mines." This, though couched in the past tense, is intended to be prophetic and admonitory, with a confidence derived from experimental gauging of the time-fuse of Presidential resolution—five months at least.

Taking leave of these considerations, we invite attention to the moral aspects of the late strike in relation to the widespread distress deliberately engendered by it. At no stage was the miners' controversy with the operators alone, in the hope of constraining them by loss of profits to accede to redress of grievances and recognition of the union; just as at no stage did the striking miners depend upon their savings in the waiting game with capital. Their expectation of success lay solely in the cornering of an article indispensable to the life and trade of the country, and in making the need of it so acutely felt as to rouse a popular clamor for surrender at any cost of principle. The actual hardship and suffering and panic apprehension produced in the Eastern section particularly were watched by the strike leaders as the mariner watches his glass, and with growing exultation, inwardly; while their outward attitude towards these calculated effects of their machinations was one of pure detachment and irresponsibility—of hypocritical regret that the operators could be so unfeeling.

If we ask ourselves how any body of men professing to be Christians could, for no matter what grievance or injustice, make the misery of a community of millions—embracing the very poorest, and all innocent—a stepping-stone to the relief desired, we shall find one answer in the remoteness of the scene affected. There is a French proverbial expression, originating in an inquiry—fathered upon Rousseau—"Which one of us, if the pressing of a button would take the life of a rich mandarin in China, and make us his heir, would refrain?" In other words, the victim of our action being but the shadow of a name, and we not being in his accusing presence and witnessing his death, we press the button, kill the mandarin, and pocket the inheritance—with a clean conscience. Mitchell was at no time confronted by hospital managers imploring coal to keep their patients alive; by teachers beseeching him not to turn the children adrift and stop their training; by the poor whose occupation was menaced or destroyed; by the well-to-do confronted with conditions equivalent to poverty. In detail, such sights might have made some impression upon him, while in the mass and in the abstract they gave him only satisfaction. That way lay his advantage; he knew it and counted upon it.

The heathenishness of this is not peculiar to Mitchell or to other strike leaders. The force of a proverb lies in its universal applicability, and we are all capable of killing our mandarin. As a nation, we are now sustaining practices in the Philippines which, from beginning to end, have no moral justification whatever. Both the ordinary warfare against the innocent inhabitants, and the hideous forms of torture to which the water-cure belongs, are going on—have been going on for four years—because our Filipino mandarin is eight thousand miles away and completely invisible from this continent. For this reason, and because we expect to enjoy the swag of national aggrandizement and world-importance and commercial profits, the American conscience is easy. The latest handbook for American citizens, Dr. W. A. Mowry's 'Territorial Growth of the United States,' does not formally couple the acquisition of the Philippines with the manifestations of "the special favor of Divine Providence towards this country" from the Louisiana purchase to "the saving of Oregon from the grasp of England"; but this must be an oversight, for it fully justifies that acquisition. "Without doubt we need a large increase in our foreign trade; in other words, we want a much larger foreign market. Most certainly the possession and control of the Philippine Islands will be of great advantage to American commerce."

Had Mitchell, to return to him, actually appeared at the asylum or hospital or school door, dismissing the inmates in pursuance of his design of coercing the operators, it is conceivable that he might have encountered some resistance, or at least reprobation of his inhumanity. It would have been entirely in keeping with strike methods if he had done this very thing vicariously, by ordering a boycott of every institution, public and private, using coal that had issued from the mines since the strike began. This will seem anything but a monstrous supposition to those who are familiar with the condition of the mechanic trades to-day, with the chronic uncertainty fostered by the walking delegate, the cessation of work when non-union labor enters into any part of the job, the fine exacted before the construction is allowed to proceed, and the thousand and one modes of petty tyranny practised upon men who thought themselves free, by men who pretend to be free. In all these invasions of liberty we must not seek for the agent; we must recognize the Strike Power, a creature without soul, conscience or bowels of compassion, which consistently involves in its ruthless warfare both the unoffending and unseen members of society not a party to the immediate quarrel, and, by a forced tribute to its campaign chest, the equally unseen and unrelated unionized craftsmen who make up the federation of labor. To each his suffering.

We may set it down to a lack of imagination that this iniquity is not regarded in its true light by the American people. But we must have patience. Time was when men needed tales like 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' or collections of horrors like its 'Key' to understand the real nature of slavery—they could not deduce it from the bare fact of absolute control of one human being by another. And to-day the national imagination has only half grasped the essence of protective tariff legislation, though it has for forty years seen measure after measure framed under its very eyes, with all the clash and compromise of greedy interests, all the secret interpolations—like the Dingley tariff rate on anthracite coal—all the juggle of conference committees. The finished product of such a grab-game we still dub science and wisdom and sanctity—till greed again orders an overhauling.

THE REAL PROBLEM OF FUEL.

Prof. Edward S. Morse, in his interesting book, 'Glimpses of China and Chinese Homes,' describes the fuel of the poor class of Chinese. Charcoal is used only by the well-to-do; for the poor, a pile of straw and twigs laboriously gathered from the roadside represents

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the woodpile and coal-cellar of Western civilization; the cooking stoves and utensils are contrived to utilize every particle of heat emitted from the light material. "In our great country," declares Professor Morse, "with its long streaks of Oriental blindness and stupidity in not enacting and enforcing proper laws for the preservation of the forests, it will not be many generations before able-bodied Americans will be seen picking up dead leaves and dried pods along the road in order to cook their dinners." This prediction has had startling verification in recent days, when the wealthy have been sacrificing old shade trees, the poor of this city carrying away the splinters and débris of the subway construction, and a large portion of our Eastern population using various makeshift substitutes for the convenient anthracite. This recent experience confirms sensationally the truth fully realized by economists since Jevons, and by acute observers like Professor Morse, that the fuel supply of the world is limited, and the coal supply relatively near exhaustion. The lesson of economy enforced by our recent conditions of panic may thus prove one of the most important teachings of the strike.

European nations have already learned this lesson, and it is instructive to recall that a coal famine in Europe, while it would cripple the great industries, would hardly touch the average household. Such general distress and potential panic as lately loomed before the American public could not be brought about in France, Italy, or Germany by any conflict of mine owners and laborers. The European family is not upon the Chinese basis of burning rubbish, but it observes the strictest economy of fuel. Coal is used only by the moneyed classes. The poor burn wood sparingly (in the cities the old paving-blocks are a valuable resource), briquettes compounded of coal dust (generally wasted by us), pitch, and clay; artificial and natural peat—and all these in a great variety of convenient and compact forms. They not only use in general wood and vegetable fibre, of which a constant natural supply may be expected, but they burn just enough fuel to do the necessary cooking and heating, and no more. Reducing the case to terms of domestic economy, European housewives and servants are always making fires and letting them go out, while American housewives and servants are always keeping fires up.

It is not to be expected that we should all at once attain that Italian dexterity by which three burning twigs under a pan are made to last precisely the making of an omelet or the cooking of a chop, nor can we readily assume that German frugality which, in a climate quite as rigorous as our own, heats a room only moderately, and only when it is occupied. We are too near fire-worshipping ancestors who burned some cords of wood a week, and we are ourselves too habituated to over-heated houses for these sensible economies. But in spite of this tradition of wastefulness, the failure of the anthracite supply has shown us unmistakably that these thrifty people are right and we are wrong. Our need has brought many who never before gave a thought to the subject of the old-world practice of burning fuel only when it is actually needed. The kitchen range, that devourer of coal, has been disused in many families in favor of the gas or oil stove. It is to be hoped that the practicability of a system which lights a fire only when the food is ready for cooking, and puts out the fire when the cooking is done, will commend it to many long after the coal famine is past. If the price of anthracite should be high through the winter, as is likely, that might render us an indirect service in prolonging the experiments with substitutes for coal, and in teaching us to keep our houses at a temperature conducive to hardiness and health.

The great possibility of reform lies in sparing domestic habits. When hard coal is ten dollars a ton or so, many will study the mysteries of their furnace and kitchen range, and it will be found that with careful husbanding of heating and cooking fires, from a quarter to a half of the fuel formerly consumed can be saved. Once this economical mind prevails, invention will come to the aid of thrift. Already manufacturers and chemists are studying briquettes and the coking of peat. It will be generally perceived that in thickly settled communities there is a tremendous economy in turning coal into gas for the common use over burning it individually in ranges. This will put off the day that Jevons foresaw, when the coal supply will give out. The recent makeshift of burning kerosene oil upon porous bricks should open up the whole question—so far treated chiefly from the railroad point of view—of petroleum as domestic fuel. Finally, great relief is to be anticipated from the full utilization of water powers, tidal and fluvial, for the production of electricity. We see only the beginnings of these possibilities, but in France there was recently held the second "white coal" convention, the white coal *(houille blanche)* being the poetical name for the Alpine glaciers, which are the great source of hydraulic and, vicariously, of electrical energy. The discussion at this meeting was conducted not by visionaries, but by shrewd manufacturers who had a practical stake in the proposed transmission of heat and power.

But such speculations are for the distant future; for the present it is sufficient if we read the plain teaching of the strike, and realize that we are past the time of a pioneer profusion in fire-making, and that now a rational use of fuel must prevail, unless we prefer to learn by some still more bitter experience.

SECRETARY SHAW ON THE STUMP.

Secretary Shaw arrived with the early frost in Indiana on Thursday. The unfeeling dispatches say that his speech at the Oakland City fair-grounds had been "widely advertised," but that "the railroad trains brought very few people," and that "one of the smallest crowds of the campaign was out to hear him." Under those circumstances, the Secretary naturally, or innocently, made "apathy" the chief subject of his story. Over the heads of the Hoosiers who were present he rebuked those who had not come out to hear him explain the importance of electing a Republican House of Representatives. He frankly confessed his "surprise" at the slight interest shown in his stumping tour.

It might occur to the Secretary, we should think, that he, as a member of the Cabinet, had been making himself a little too common, not to say cheap. As ornaments of special occasions, as delegates of their chief to utter in his name the correct nothings at civic or commemorative gatherings, Cabinet ministers are rightly in demand, and their presence lends fit grace. But when a political campaign is on, there are certain delicacies which they should observe. Neutrality is not expected of them. They are frankly of the party in power. But their honorable position demands that their public deliverances be dignified, and not of a sort to be bellowed from every stump. A Cabinet member in rough-and-tumble debate with objectors in the gallery is not a pleasing spectacle. It is eminently proper, and desirable as well, that the President's official family should expound and defend the policy of the Administration. Mr. Root's few speeches, Attorney-General Knox's careful and able statement of the intentions and hopes of the Government in the matter of regulating Trusts, the promised exposition of our foreign policy by Secretary Hay—these are examples of the fit and traditional participation of Cabinet members in a political campaign. But beyond such infrequent and weighty addresses, danger lies for them. It would be a public calamity were any of the President's Secretaries to make himself so weariful and hackneyed a rounder of the party stump as, for example, Mr. Depew.

The versatility of Secretary Shaw as a campaign speaker was newly illustrated at Detroit on Saturday evening. He took up the subject of our foreign trade, and found it to be in such a flourishing and progressive state as to suggest the advisability of subsidies from Congress to help it along. To the objection that this policy would impose a burden on the taxpayers in behalf of a private in-

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terest, he replied that "the drain on the Treasury would be infinitesimal." Under the Senate bill, not more than $1,200,000 can be paid any one year until more ships are built, and this would be the merest trifle in comparison with the amount we pay for ocean freights now. But when more ships are built, 95 per cent. of their cost is paid for labor, "and I have never yet raised my voice," he continued, "against expending the public revenues, which come from the rich and well-to-do, in such way as throws 95 per cent. of it to labor."

This economic absurdity is gravely propounded by one of the chief officers of the Government at a time when socialistic ideas have received a dangerous impetus in our political life in consequence of the coal strike. The essence of Socialism is, that the Government ought to appropriate the public money so as to help citizens to earn their living. There are infinite varieties of method by which the Socialist philosophers seek to accomplish this end. The one most commonly advocated is that of public workshops, as, for instance, shipyards where a certain number of workers can always be sure of employment at good wages. Government coal mines and Government steel factories would naturally follow. Public bakeries would perhaps be more desirable than any other channel of state aid to industry, because the price of bread touches society more closely that that of any other article. Now observe how much stronger is the argument for subsidies to bakeshops than to shipyards.

Mr. Shaw says that 95 per cent. of all the money spent on shipbuilding goes to labor. Of course he includes in the 95 per cent. the materials of which the ship is composed, as well as the labor employed in putting them together. He means that only 5 per cent. of the whole sum expended goes to the builder himself. But (says the Socialist), according to our plan, labor will receive the full 100 per cent. Why should the capitalist receive anything beyond wages of superintendence? Besides that, who is to guarantee that under the capitalistic plan he will not take 10 or 15 per cent. instead of a beggarly 5 per cent.? Is it not evident that in a joint debate between Secretary Shaw and Karl Marx, or some acute disciple of his, the latter must get the better of the argument? The disciple of Marx would probably add, sneeringly, that any man to whom Congress should vote $100,000 could well afford to expend $95,000 of it for labor.

The Secretary declines to discuss the merits of the bill now pending in the House, but gives the weight of his influence to a different measure not yet reported in either branch of Congress—a measure for subsidies for ships running to "South American countries and the islands adjacent thereto." The only islands adjacent to South America which supply any trade, or are capable of doing so, are the West Indies. According to the Secretary, we are destitute of facilities for sending our goods to those countries, and we need ships for the purpose, or we need better and faster ones than we now have. Argentina, he tells us, exports $120,000,000, and takes only $12,000,000 from us. Brazil's imports and exports are in about the same ratio. Of the imports of those countries only a very small part is carried under our flag. "When a manufacturer desires to test the South American market," he continues, "he must first ship to Europe and then to South America, or he must send in sailing vessels or charter a tramp."

Chartering a tramp is no doubt disgraceful, especially in these days of large ship combines, but we venture to suggest that since all the shipping in the world is at liberty to carry goods from North American ports to South American and West Indian ports, and since large numbers are now so employed, the smallness of our exports to those countries cannot be due to a want of facilities of transportation. Possibly one cause of it may be the failure of the Senate to ratify the treaties of reciprocity with those countries negotiated by President McKinley. Nor is any reason apparent why the ships that bring our imports from those countries should not take return cargoes of equal value if we offer them our goods as cheaply as other nations do. We think, however, that our merchants and manufacturers are making very creditable gains in that part of the world, and that they will continue to make satisfactory progress in the future without any adventitious and socialistic aid from the public purse.

Secretary Shaw seems to have been rummaging the records of the Harrison Administration, when Secretary Blaine was working over the problem of South American trade, and trying to persuade his countrymen that the money we spent for foreign freights was impoverishing us, being virtually cast into the sea. We have since gone on wasting our substance in that reckless manner until we have grown to be the richest nation in the world. What can be the reason why we have not been sent to the poor-house in consequence of this drain upon our resources? Evidently the reason is that the price we paid for freights was worth the money. And this might have been reasonably assumed, considering that we are the universal Yankee nation and are proud of knowing on which side our bread is buttered.

THE DANISH ISLANDS TREATY.

The treaty for the sale of the Danish Islands in the West Indies to the United States for the sum of $5,000,000 is now under consideration in the Landsthing, or upper house, of the Danish Parliament. The treaty was rejected once by that body, but the time for consideration was extended for one year. It may be inferred that this extension of time was made at our instance, since the Danish Premier, Mr. Deuntzer, in the debate last week, said that if he did not get a favorable vote now he should ask for a further prolongation, "provided the United States desired it." So it appears that we are in the undiplomatic position of asking a foreign nation to give more time, not to us, but to itself, to consider a pending treaty. This might be considered by Denmark as a hint from us that she did not know her own mind, or that, if she did not finally consent to the sale, we should take the islands by force. Indeed, the latter threat has been proclaimed in a portion of the press and by word of mouth, although, of course, there is no ground for such a charge of "criminal aggression" on our part.

All of our proceedings in the matter of the so-called "Christmas Treaty" have been undiplomatic. The man Christmas, who started the negotiation, is an ex-lieutenant of the Danish navy who had been court-martialled and dismissed from the service. He had become a *chevalier d'industrie* at large. He conceived the brilliant idea of selling the Danish islands to the United States, with the expectation, of course, of getting a commission out of the sale in some way. He came to Washington in December, 1899, with this object in view. Imperialism was at that time more rampant in the United States than it is now. Christmas managed in some way to get an interview with President McKinley, to whom he broached the subject of the purchase of the islands. Mr. McKinley referred him to Secretary Hay, and the latter gave him a letter of introduction to the American Embassy in London.

This was the first undiplomatic step taken, and the first one ever taken by the present head of the Department of State. There was a Minister of Denmark in Washington and a Minister of the United States in Copenhagen. Both of them were ignorant of the fact that a momentous negotiation was going on behind their backs, and that it was conducted by a common adventurer. Since these facts became notorious, efforts have been made to show that the negotiation was merely initiated by Christmas, but was not carried on by him. This is an error. Efforts were made to shake him off, especially by the Danish Government, but they were unavailing. He clung to it like a burr on a fleece. To him it was a golden fleece, and nothing could make him relax his hold.

Christmas accompanied Mr. Henry White, our Secretary of Legation at London, to Copenhagen. The Danish Minister of Foreign Affairs was astounded

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when the nature of the business was laid before him by a discharged officer of his own Government. He received Secretary White with the courtesy due to his station, but refused to have any dealings with Christmas, or even to admit him to his room. Christmas had the audacity to appeal to the Premier and demand admittance to the Foreign Office as a party to the business in hand, and, by using Secretary Hay's letter, he actually carried his point, and not only joined in the negotiations, but got himself recognized by the Danish authorities as a party to the future conduct of the business.

How Christmas made use of this authority was disclosed in the Richardson investigation ordered by the House of Representatives last spring. He persuaded the Danish Ministry and Parliament and the Danish public that money would be required to carry the treaty through the Senate at Washington. This was an infamous lie, but it was believed in most of the countries of Europe to be true. People were accustomed to read of the corruption of some of our city governments and State legislatures. They were familiar with the names of Croker, Quay, and other political bosses, and were prepared to believe the worst things that could be said of our public men. Yet the Danish Government spurned the thought of bribing anybody to vote for the treaty. If Christmas had received any money for the purpose of putting it through the Senate, he would have pocketed it, of course. But he received not a penny.

The Richardson investigation in the House disclosed nothing except the method by which the treaty had been set on foot, but that was a revelation in itself. The facts did not become public until after the treaty had been ratified. If they had been known before, it is most likely that the Senate would have rejected it, not with the intention of rejecting the islands, perhaps, but to prevent the Christmas scandal from becoming a part of our national archives. The opportunity to do this is reserved for the House of Representatives, which can refuse to appropriate the money. It is sometimes necessary to break a limb that has been badly set, in order to make a good job and enable the patient to walk properly. Something of that kind would seem to be necessary here.

That strong pressure has been brought to bear on the Danish upper house to accept the treaty appears by the late dispatches. In the debate last week we read that "the Premier said he had received the written promise of the United States Government that, after the cession, free imports from the island into the United States would be granted." It would be interesting to know who promised that Congress would vote for free trade with those islands, when President Roosevelt, with his utmost efforts, could not get a bill passed reducing the duties on Cuban sugar 20 per cent.

SHALL WE RAISE A STATUE TO SHEPHERD?

The expenditures for public works in the District of Columbia during the last thirty years, and, within the past year, the public approval of the magnificent plans of the Park Commission for the improvement of Washington, emphasize the desire of all our citizens that the visitor to the national capital shall see in it the expression of our highest aspirations. The lessons to be taught by its statues and monuments are not of merely local interest, but so deeply concern the nation at large as to merit attention throughout the land. The movement now being vigorously pushed to give a place to the late Alexander R. Shepherd among the chosen few whose public services are to be commemorated by a monument or other memorial, should therefore command general attention, especially in view of the great respectability of its promoters. One feature of the movement is especially fitted to excite sympathy. History has frequently to reverse the judgment pronounced upon a great man by his contemporaries, but one can hardly find so rapid a transition as that from sweeping condemnation to unqualified adulation within the lifetime of one generation, and it would be very pleasant to see historic justice executed so rapidly as it would be in the present case were the transition justified by the facts.

Were the question merely one of personal merit or demerit, we might perhaps inquire whether it were not better to follow an order of preference in the erection of our memorials, and whether statesmen like Jay, Madison, or Clay, and financiers like Gallatin or McCulloch, might not take precedence of one whose claims are merely local. But the great question in connection with such a civic memorial as this is, what moral lesson will it teach our youth? As the latter look at the statue, their question will be, "What is there worthy of imitation in the achievements of him whom it commemorates?" In answering this question, there is no necessity of our discussing any disputed facts in Shepherd's life. The change of sentiment to which we have referred has not risen from any discovery of new facts, but only from a different interpretation of those facts on which Senator Allison's committee pronounced its verdict. In stating who Mr. Shepherd was, and what he did, we shall confine ourselves to facts which all must admit.

In the Washington city directory for every year through Mr. Shepherd's governorship, including that of his downfall, may be found the following entry:

"SHEPHERD, ALEX. R. & CO., Plumbers and Gas Fitters, 910 Pa. Ave., n. w."

In stating this, we do not mean to imply that he was but a commonplace plumber. That he was much more—that he was a man of extraordinary activity and vigor—may be inferred from the finding of the Congressional Committee that the Vice-President of the Board of Public Works was practically the Board, and exercised its powers as absolutely as if no one else had been associated with him. Probably the same thing might have been said of the Legislature, and, in fact, of the entire District Government. Yet he had no business experience or training other than that of the head of an establishment like his, and such as he had acquired as an enterprising house-builder. With all his vigor, the results show that Shepherd was neither an administrator, an engineer, nor a financier. Had he been an administrator, he would have foreseen the results of his plan of letting out contracts for work to the amount of millions of dollars, without public competition, to a thousand different men to be selected by himself, at prices fixed by himself so as to insure the best of work with a reasonable profit. That the same facilities for evasion and for imposing bad work on inspectors existed under his plan as under any other, that the main difference was the greater chance for profit to be made under his arrangement, that every contract he let was a valuable franchise of which the possessor could readily dispose under the guise of subletting, and that the work would finally be done by those who would undertake it at the lowest rates, he seems not to have foreseen. Had he been an engineer, he would have seen the necessity of not commencing any piece of work until detailed surveys were prepared, showing exactly what was to be done in every street improvement. Had he been a financier, he would have seen the necessity of keeping a rigorous check upon expenditures and incurring no unauthorized indebtedness. Being none of these three, he proceeded to execute great public works with preparations more like those he would have made for the erection of a house than those required for his actual purpose.

The result hardly needs to be told. It is written in official documents. It is fresh in the memory of all who then lived in Washington or were connected with the Government. In the spring of 1874, when the Congressional Committee made its investigation, there was opened up from the first step a scene of confusion which is, we believe, without a parallel in the municipal history of this or any other country. Under authority to expend $6,000,000, the estimated or supposed expenditure had amounted to about $19,000,000, or more than three times that authorized. But this was a purely nominal amount. Multiplicity of contracts, the confusion of accounts, and the entire absence of order from begin-

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ning to end, were such that the committee had to acknowledge its inability to get to the bottom of the affair, and recommended that the subject should be considered by some other authority. When this was finally done, the claims were found to be much greater than the total of the nominal amount. And this immense expenditure had been incurred in the short space of three years, and for a city of hardly more than 100,000 inhabitants. Indebtedness was being piled up at the rate of $300 or $400 per annum for every family in the city, with no immediate prospect of its cessation.

Commissioner McFarland, in a recent address stating the reasons for the proposed memorial, condenses the public services in question into a single sentence so happily that we can not do better than quote him:

> "Governor Shepherd, chiefly as a member of the Board of Public Works, in an incredibly short space of time, ploughed up the city so as to make necessary and inevitable that the plans of George Washington would be carried out."

The first thing to strike the reader of this would be that the same thing might be said of an invading army; the main difference being that in that case the ploughing up would have been done by cannon-shot rather than by spades and ploughs. But the final outcome might well have been the same. The fact is, that the crisis was such as to make it imperatively necessary to stop the career of the great actor in the affair. If he were allowed to go on spending ten or fifteen million dollars a year in this manner, where would be the end? The volume of indebtedness already accumulated was such that it was impossible for the city to bear it alone. Congress was obliged to come to its aid by assuming thereafter one-half of the municipal expenses. Through this help, and the adoption of rational methods, Washington was made what it is to-day.

We now reach the heart of the whole affair. From one point of view the position claimed for Shepherd may be that of one who voluntarily sacrificed himself to attain a great and good public end. We may suppose that he was profoundly struck with the indifference of Congress to the condition of the city, and the seeming difficulty of awakening the nation to a sense of its duty toward its capital. He seemingly saw but one speedy way of making Congress do what it ought to do, and that was to create a situation which would compel it to act, even though he sacrificed himself thereby. From this point of view, the more reckless the expenditure, the greater the destruction, and the more intolerable the situation, the more likely would be the attainment of the end in view. He himself might be condemned, but Washington would become what it ought to be, and posterity would praise him for what he had brought about. Whether these were the considerations which moved him, we do not pretend to decide. We leave that to the promoters of the scheme under consideration. But this is what seems to be implied in all the utterances and in all the proceedings when interpreted in connection with the facts. In no other sense than this was Shepherd the author of the Washington of to-day. How else can we interpret Commissioner McFarland's claim that he made the improvement of the city necessary and inevitable? And the question which we ask is, Is this the example which we are to show to our posterity to teach it a great lesson of national policy?

We commend another question to the very respectable movers in this scheme. Will it be possible to cleanse the proposed monument from all taint of association with the safe-burglary conspiracy? It may be admitted that no proof was or can be adduced showing that Shepherd knew of this nefarious plot; the fact being that the case was never brought under judicial investigation, owing to the burglar being released on straw bail, and never again heard of. But that a burglar was suborned to break into a safe of the District Government, take books out of it, and carry them to the house of the principal prosecutor, and that the plot was hatched by, or with the cognizance of, an official of the District Government, was established about as certainly as any facts well could be from the detailed accounts of the affair which appeared in the public prints.

THE THREE-YEAR COLLEGE COURSE IN NEW ENGLAND.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, October 14, 1902.

With the beginning of the present academic year, Harvard College formally offers the degree of Bachelor of Arts at the end of three years of study. This important step, one of the most important in the history of higher education in this country, is no sudden move, but the latest of a series of steps reaching back over the history of the University for a number of years. Nor is the possibility of obtaining the degree in three years now for the first time held out. The catalogue for 1901-'02, embodying the practice of some years, gave notice that the degree might be obtained in three years, provided the student completed the requisite number of courses with such grades as would entitle him to graduation *cum laude*. This year the requirement of *cum laude* rank has been removed, and the degree is now open to all students in three years on the same terms, so far as scholarship is concerned, that it has hitherto been obtainable on in four.

While the action of Harvard in this matter is again in advance of the other New England colleges, there are significant indications that corresponding action may before long be taken elsewhere. The new collegiate department of Clark University, opened this month under the Presidency of the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, offers a three-year course to all comers, but with what is known as the group system instead of the elective system. At Brown, while a three-year undergraduate course is not yet offered, a regulation by which the degrees of A.B. and A.M. may both be obtained at the end of four years (provided a somewhat higher rank in certain extra courses be secured than is otherwise required) went into effect this year. Boston University offers the degree upon the completion of 120 semester hours, without limitation as to the number of years; and Dartmouth, which requires 122 semester hours, does the same. At Tufts the degree has, since 1893, been obtainable in three years by those students who received an average grade of B in the work of the 128 term hours required. At Bowdoin it is possible for a student who enters with three term courses to his credit, and who pursues in college five courses a year, to take his degree at the end of three years. At Amherst the student must have two term credits at entrance, take six courses each term (besides required work in declamation, debates, and hygiene), and maintain an average standing of "C plus." Amherst also allows the degree to be taken in three and one-third years, leave of absence being granted for the remainder of the fourth year, while at Dartmouth an appreciable number complete the course in three years and a half, using the surplus time in one of the professional or special schools. At Yale it has for some years been possible to obtain the degree in three years by completing satisfactorily the required number of courses, anticipation of college courses at entrance being allowed.

A further examination of the usage, or rather permission, of these different institutions discloses a situation of considerable educational interest. At Harvard the movement towards the three-year course has been accompanied by a gradual reduction of the number of courses required for the degree. The 21 courses required in 1880-'81 have been reduced, first to 20, then to 19½, then to about 18½, and finally to 17½, while this last figure may in practice be reduced to 16 by the anticipation of English courses at entrance. Further, the abolition of the requirement of a higher grade of scholarship on the part of three-year students than was demanded of those who had chosen the four-year term, puts the degree within the grasp of the average student in three years. Harvard, in other words, has now a bona-fide three-year course, unaccompanied by conditions tending to make its pursuit less free or more onerous than were the conditions which attended the older plan.

None of the other New England colleges, except the new institution at Worcester, has yet gone as far as this. The so-called three-year course, where such exists, is simply the old four-year course completed in three years, with the help, often, of permitted anticipation of courses at entrance or allowance for summer work, but with the additional requirement, in most instances, of a higher grade of scholarship on the part of the student who chooses the shorter time. It is not surprising, accordingly, to find that elsewhere than at Harvard the number of students availing themselves of the privilege of shortening their course is very small. At Yale, for example, only two members of the present senior class are reported as having attained senior rating after two years, while since 1886 but six students have graduated in

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three years. At Tufts thirteen students have graduated in three years since the adoption of the plan in 1893, while as many more have taken the master's degree in four years, as a few seem likely to do at Brown. At Wellesley one student of unusual maturity and ability has taken both the A.B. and the A.M. in four years, and a member of the present senior class will, it is said, probably obtain the bachelor's degree in the shorter term from having entered in advance of the admission requirements in modern languages. For five or six years past an occasional student of exceptional power at Boston University has taken the bachelor's degree at the end of three years, while "probably three" students are reported to be now planning a three-year course. At Dartmouth, where there is said to be "no thought of shortening the college course to three years by a reduction of the number of courses required for a degree," not more than two men a year take the whole course in three years.

At first sight, this showing might be interpreted as an indication that the demand for a three-year course has been overrated, and that, even with such a course offered to them, the great majority of students, without regard to aims or financial means, manifestly prefer to spend four years in study for their degree. Such an inference, however, seems hardly warranted. With the exception of Harvard, where the requirements for the degree have been steadily reduced as the standard of admission has been raised, the three-year course, as has been said, is only the four-year course taken in three years. Precisely as much work must be done in the one case as in the other, only with a difference of a year in the amount of time spent upon it. That the average college course can thus, with profit to the student, be compressed at both ends, is at least questionable. Not that the average undergraduate at present works too hard; on the contrary, the oft-noted lack of robust intellectual interest among college men in the East to-day constitutes one of the gravest menaces to the standing and usefulness of many of our older institutions. But the four-year course, however variously contrived, is nevertheless a unit in which the order of subjects is determined, not only with reference to the total quantity of work to be accomplished, but also, and very considerably, with reference to the amount of time to be spent; and to attempt to do in three years what has been carefully planned to be done in four is seriously to disturb the logical arrangement of studies, and to bring into juxtaposition subjects which hitherto it has been deemed wise to keep somewhat apart. Further, the increase in the number of different subjects which must be pursued at any one time, under the compression plan, tends to work intellectual confusion in the average student, and so far to scatter his effort over a variety of topics as to make difficult the doing of good work in any of them. Few mature scholars would care to pursue even so many as four or five separate lines of study—say mathematics, a foreign language, history, chemistry, and psychology—at the same time, and it is not surprising that college students as yet show no great eagerness to take up six or seven. At Tufts, for example, the student who would complete his course in three years must carry a programme of over forty semester hours a year—a task which only those of exceptional ability are capable of performing; while at Wellesley it is frankly said to be "almost a physical impossibility" for a student to take the amount of work required for the degree in three years.

It seems clear, therefore, that, with the exception of Harvard, where the principle of fewer courses and greater content in each course prevails, the arrangements now somewhat widely in vogue in New England are hardly more than intimations of the kind of three-year college course which has of late come to be strongly advocated. Irrespective of the merits of the case, the demand for a course of study which shall lead to a first degree in three years is, obviously, not merely a protest against the amount of time which the present college course requires, but a criticism as well of the course itself as at present constructed. It is urged that the requirements for the degree are excessive in both variety and amount, and greater than preparation for business or professional life necessitates. To yield to the demand, consequently, involves something of what has been pointedly called the "degradation" of the bachelor's degree from the plane to which it has been, in the course of years, exalted. Clearly, then, the mere permission to do, if one can, four years' work in three, even though unaccompanied by special requirements as to scholarship, will not be regarded as fully meeting the case; it will still be insisted that the volume of work is too great, whether the period be three years or four.

The solution of the problem of a three-year course seems thus to depend upon the ability of the college to frame such a course out of the educational material at its disposal. The college must give up the notion that any existing four-year course can, with a little pruning and a good deal of compression, be made to work well enough in the new conditions, and, instead, must address itself to the making of a new programme, which, while demanding less time in years, will still offer to the student the substantial elements of a modern liberal education, and give opportunity for at least as sufficient a preparation for professional or business life as is commonly afforded now. Further, the college must make this provision for all students, not simply for such as have special ability or unusual powers of application; it must offer it as distinctly the kind of education which society now needs, and not as a concession to such as are poor or in a hurry. If it shall prove possible to do this successfully, the fear lest in the process the degree shall be "cheapened" will probably disappear, and the new course shortly be held in as high regard as the old. The problem is certainly one of the most vital with which educational reconstruction has now to deal.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

THE INFLUENCE OF LAWS ON LEGISLATIVE OPINION.

LONDON, October 7, 1902.

That public opinion is the parent of legislation, is an important truth which is now so generally recognized that it passes for a truism. That laws themselves are in many countries, and notably in modern England, the creator of that public opinion which may be called legislative or law-making public opinion, and which leads in the long run to fundamental and even revolutionary changes, may sound a paradoxical assertion. My aim in this letter is to justify this paradox and to show the importance of the truth which it embodies.

Laws are often the creator of legislative public opinion; they gradually create, that is to say, a state of feeling which in its turn favors legislation of a particular character. It is not hard for any one who watches the course of legislative changes in England, to understand how it happens that an Act of Parliament may greatly affect public opinion. Statutes are more often than not passed, not with a view to carry out any wide and recognized principle, but with the object of meeting in the readiest and most obvious manner some special evil or hardship which happens to arrest the attention of the public. A member of Parliament is assaulted by garroters; the demand is immediately made that garroters shall be flogged. Some philanthropist discovers that the houses of artisans are ill-built and unwholesome; he draws a striking picture of the misery caused to the working classes by habitations which are productive of disease; a proposal is immediately made that a law of one kind or another shall be passed for the pulling down of dens of disease, and the erecting in their place of solid, wholesome dwelling-houses for artisans. A notorious usurer displays the cruelty as well as the craft of Shylock; general indignation is excited by the sufferings of its victims, who are hastily assumed to be as innocent as they are reckless; newspapers and the readers of newspapers forthwith advocate the revival of laws against usury. Children, it is found, are ill-treated in certain factories, and women who are not children suffer in health from overwork in ill-ventilated workshops; the suggestion is naturally made that factories and workshops shall be inspected, that the employment of children shall be regulated or prohibited, or that women shall be protected against ill-usage by being deprived of the right to dispose freely, on their own terms, of their own labor.

These demands and a score more like unto them may be reasonable or unreasonable—on this point it is my intention to say nothing whatever—but they and other popular cries, even when defensible as they often are on grounds of reason, have two alarming features in common, namely, that they are demands that a law shall be immediately passed dealing off-hand with some particular case or cases of great real or apparent hardship, and that Parliament shall, when engaged in meeting some patent evil, pay little attention to the general principles which govern legislation, and shall direct the whole of its power towards putting down some particular and definite abuse.

This being so, let it be further noted that such cries for a law which may put an end to a particular case of hardship have, during the nineteenth century—at any rate, since the passing of the great Reform Act—generally received attention and satisfaction; and laws, originally of an exceptional character, have been again and again passed to meet some particular grievance. The earlier Factory Acts had a limited scope and affected one particular class

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of factories. The acts which have revived the punishment of whipping were, and are, enactments passed to punish particular offences which happened, at a given moment, to excite the indignation of the public. The recent Money Lenders' Act, 1900, may, without much exaggeration, be described as an enactment for the suppression of Isaac Gordon; but (and this is a point calling for special attention) a new kind of law framed to meet a specific and immediate evil always does, however little the legislature which passed the act may be aware of the circumstance, rest upon some principle or assumption which, whether sound or unsound, is of wide application. The first Factory Act contained within it the principle or admission that it was the business of the state to regulate labor in factories. The first enactment which, in a hesitating and very partial manner, provided for the housing of the working classes, involved the assumption that the supply of habitations for the mass of the people cannot be left, like other branches of trade, to be governed by the haggling of the market, but must be the special concern of the state. The revival of whipping as a punishment for crime rests on the old idea, attacked by the wisest philanthropists of a past generation, that the severity rather than the certainty of punishment is to be relied upon as a check upon crime. Isaac Gordon's Act—to call the Money Lenders' Act, 1900, by the name which best describes it—rests upon the assumption, for which as yet no argumentative basis has been found, that Bentham's argument against the usury laws admits of confutation, and that these laws ought to be more or less revived.

Now the one thing which is certain as to the course of legislation is, that principles which are the foundation of an actual law, must obtain thereby a certain weight or prestige among the ordinary public. It is also certain that a principle once recognized by law will, if of wide application, be, as time goes on, widely applied. To this we must add—and, as regards England, at any rate, the point is one of great importance—an act of Parliament is a precedent; and the well-known dictum of a judge that an ounce of precedent is of more importance than a pound of theory, holds good quite as much in Parliament as in the law courts. It is absolutely certain, for instance, that, to take an example from legislation which most persons rightly hold beneficial, the Married Women's Property Act, 1870, which to a very limited extent and in a very tentative manner gave property rights to married women, was, though ineffective in its direct results, the precedent which justified in the eyes of Parliament and of the nation the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, which, with some subsequent amendments, has bestowed on a married woman the property rights, and from one point of view more than the property rights, of an unmarried woman or of a man.

In dealing with the matter under consideration, I have purposely made use of the word precedent, for it suggests the true and most important conclusion that in England Parliamentary legislation, or, in other words, legislation by Act of Parliament, bears a very close analogy to judicial legislation—that is to say, to rules of law originating in the judicial decision of particular cases. It is admitted on all hands that judge-made law is in reality the gradual development, through adherence to precedent, of general principles involved in the decision of given cases. But Parliamentary law bears in this matter much the same character as judge-made law. An act is passed to meet a particular case, *e. g.*, the overworking of children in a particular kind of factory. Little attention is paid to the principle on which the act logically rests; yet it is soon perceived that, if a law regulating the labor of children in one kind of factory is beneficial, it is applicable to almost any factory or even any workshop. Meanwhile, as the sphere of the Factory Acts is extended, a public opinion is formed in favor of state intervention. A host of acts dealing with particular cases obtain more and more the force of precedent, till at last the long line of what we may call "Parliamentary judgments," beginning with the Health and Morals Act, 1802, is closed, for the time at least, by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, and the state regulation of labor stands forth as a recognized principle of modern English law. Note, further, that this course of legislative action has at each step stimulated the growth of public opinion in favor of state intervention, and has produced a body of collectivist sentiment or conviction which, in its turn, has given birth to large bodies of collectivist or, as some would say, socialistic laws.

This action of law by way of precedent on the growth of law-making or legislative opinion, is important in at least two different ways. It explains a point which certainly requires explanation in the development of English law during the nineteenth century; it further reveals the existence of a danger which has hardly been sufficiently noted by the critics of English institutions.

Any one who studies the evolution of English law during the nineteenth century, is ultimately met by a problem which it is easier to raise than to answer. How has it happened that legislation which may be called revolutionary because it tends towards fundamental social changes, has in many instances been promoted by men who called themselves, and really were, Tories? The fact itself is past dispute. What is its explanation? It may partly, no doubt, be found in the desire of a party whilst in opposition to gain at any cost popular support. It may be found in part in a real affinity between a certain type of Toryism and socialism. Nor can any one doubt that Tory philanthropists, such as Southey and Sadler, did, even during the heyday of Benthamite Liberalism, propound doctrines which, whether their authors knew it or not, were more or less socialistic. But these explanations do not go very far in the way of answering the question I have raised; they hardly apply to the case of Lord Shaftesbury. He was, from many points of view, a genuine and even a stiff Tory. Socialism, as he understood it, was in his mind associated with infidelity, and he was not consciously a whit more inclined towards any kind of collectivism than towards religious scepticism, yet no one man did more than he to promote the factory movement; and this movement has developed into a system of state interference with the conduct of labor which, we may suspect, would have excited his Lordship's astonishment and condemnation.

One explanation, though a partial one, of the course pursued by Lord Shaftesbury, and by men like him, is to be found in the influence, which I have already traced out, of laws on the formation of public opinion. Lord Shaftesbury had certainly no intention of promoting any kind of socialism. When he became the advocate of the Ten Hours Bill, he was influenced wholly by religious and humanitarian feeling. His aim was to put an end to the overworking of children in factories; and he, in a manner very characteristic of English philanthropists, recommended legislation which he was convinced would free wretched children from ill-usage, without thinking it necessary to form any very clear idea of the principles on which the Ten Hours Bill was based. His intellectual dulness increased his moral authority; his obvious honesty and his sincere Toryism made it impossible either for himself or his followers to believe that he was the advocate of socialistic legislation. The moral and religious weight of his character had much to do with the success of the factory movement. The so-called Ten Hours Bill became an Act of Parliament; its provisions were gradually extended to one kind of factory after another, and Lord Shaftesbury naturally rejoiced over a triumph of legislative humanity. But to the end of his life, we may suspect, he did not recognize the real nature of his success. The Tory peer, whilst fighting for the humane treatment of children, had become the unconscious promoter of collectivist legislation, which in its turn produced a body of collectivist opinion destined ultimately to create a condition of things under which a leading politician of to-day could assert that nowadays we are all Socialists.

A danger with which English institutions are threatened is the occurrence of gradual though ill-considered revolution. This peril is immediately connected with the effect of legislative precedent on law-making opinion. At the present moment the English Constitution is not seriously threatened by sudden and avowed attacks upon its fundamental principles. The vigor of the resistance to Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule policy must convince even Home Rulers that the characteristics of the present time do not favor any course of action which is avowedly revolutionary; but the annals of the nineteenth century show that in England innovations which cannot be accomplished by a political *coup de main*, may often be achieved by the passing of laws which do not appear to effect any large change, but set a precedent for following some new and wide-reaching principle. Let any one who doubts this weigh the great effect which has gradually been produced by the passing of a number of acts, none of which, taken alone, may have appeared of great importance, but which, taken together, have gone a great way to sanction the principles of collectivism.

With this gradual process of change there would be no reason to quarrel were it not that the habit of legislating with a view to particular and exceptional cases introduces into English institutions wide and far-reaching innovations without the nation ever having had the opportunity, or ever having taken the trouble, to consider or discuss adequately the principles on which alone far-reaching changes can be defended. It is not my wish to express any opinion either against or in favor of the

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Education Bill of the Government, but a critic may be allowed to note one indisputable fact. Habits of piecemeal legislation, combined with respect for precedent, have produced a condition of things which no man of sense, whatever his political or his religious beliefs, would have dreamed of creating if, from the first, the subject of national education had been discussed in Parliament as a whole, and an attempt had been made to deal with it on broad and intelligible principles. The influence of laws, as precedents, both on opinion and on legislation, is assuredly not without its obvious evils. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE CAUSE AND EVIL OF OVERCAPITALIZATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a pleasure to turn from the unbaked sciolism of cheap politicians to the serious, lawyerlike, and statesmanlike speech of Attorney-General Knox, before the Chamber of Commerce in Pittsburgh, on the 14th instant. Without the impudent efforts of the Senatorial style of statesman to deny or belittle the impending calamities of gigantic combinations of capital, it is a real and earnest effort to consider, and if possible to find, a legal remedy for them. It is not necessary to agree (as I certainly do not) with all of Mr. Knox's conclusions, in order to admire the spirit and intellect which he has shown in his treatment of the subject. There is, however, one portion of his criticism that I think invites more attention than he has given it.

Of the abuses of these organizations he says:

"Overcapitalization is the chief of these, and the source from which the minor ones flow. It is the possibility of overcapitalization that furnishes the temptations and opportunities for most of the others. Overcapitalization does not mean large capitalization or capitalization adequate for the greatest undertakings. It is the imposition upon an undertaking of a liability without a corresponding asset to represent it. Therefore, overcapitalization is a fraud upon those who contribute the real capital either originally or by purchase; and the efforts to realize dividends thereon from operations is a fraudulent imposition of a burden upon the public."

The greatest injury that is worked by overcapitalization is not "the efforts to realize dividends thereon." In the bulk of the modern corporations, the stock is not intended to represent assets. The property put in is not represented, or intended to be represented, by the stock—certainly not the common stock. The real money or property which the organizers of these corporations put into them is returned to the vendors in the shape of bonds or at the least preferred stock. The common stock is generally issued as gifts to the promoters, bribes to those granting the franchises, paying so-called "underwriters," or as a bonus given to float the bonds. It is not supposed or intended generally that the concern can or shall pay dividends on the common stock in the near future. It is sufficient for the purposes of the getters-up of these Trusts if its profits are sufficient to pay the interest on its bonds, and perhaps the dividend on the preferred stock. The real value to them of this common stock is the inflation of the public credit, without any responsibility. They create thousands of pieces of paper, which are called securities, which may be pledged and gambled with on the Stock Exchange. It is not to manufacture merchandise or furnish transportation that these immense stock issues are required; but it is for the purpose of making in a few hours the colossal fortunes which the manipulation of the stock market may insure them, that these countless pieces of paper are manufactured. It is the most dangerous form of inflated credit; like incontrovertible paper money, it is imaginary assets. It serves no useful purpose, but its object and end is gambling.

It will be observed that neither Mr. Carnegie, nor any of the sellers of properties which go to make up a large Trust, take any of their purchase money in common stock—they get bonds or preferred stock. Such of the common stock as has not been used in bribes or bonuses remains with the syndicate, who shove it off on the public or use it as counters to gamble with. The certificates representing stock are the chips—blue, red, and white—of the faro or poker table, with the advantage on the side of the latter that they are paid for in money, while the former are not.

This then—the undue inflation of credit, the inducement to and opportunity for gambling, and not merely the efforts to earn dividends on water—is the great injury which is done by these enormous and fictitious issues. J. S.

PHILADELPHIA, October 18, 1902.

LEVYING TRIBUTE ABROAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The enclosed quaintly addressed and naïvely worded missive has just reached me, and I think it might amuse your readers as much as it has myself. The fact is, that I never had the chance of voting but once in my life. I have been kept professionally abroad ever since I was twenty-two. And, although I have no longer a vote, Mr. Quay—I suppose the person you have repeatedly exposed—seems to think I must still support the Republican machine in my native State. I am only too willing to do anything I can to support the United States, but I refuse to be blackmailed by the Republican or any other party. JOSEPH PENNELL.

LONDON, October 8, 1902.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., September 18, 1902. D.

Mr. Joseph Pennell, 14 Buckingham, London, England:

DEAR SIR: The Republican State Committee is greatly in need of financial assistance for the election of Republican Congressmen and State Officers, and will be greatly obliged if you will aid to the extent of your ability and inclination.

Yours, with much respect,

M. S. QUAY, Chairman.

POPULAR INDIFFERENCE TO ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of September 25 contains an admirable editorial on the lack of interest in art in this country, the point of which is, that Americans care for statues and paintings, but for intellectual rather than æsthetic reasons. The subject is everything, the art with which it is represented is a matter of indifference. With this conclusion I am inclined to agree, but certain implications of the writer are less satisfactory.

He plainly implies that portrait art is scarcely art at all, unless the subject be commanding or exceptionally attractive, and that the sculptor who is called upon to execute a monument to Gov. Flower or Dr. Channing has a barren opportunity unless he is permitted to introduce allegorical figures. In other words, the central theme of our monument art is hopelessly unæsthetic, and any art that is to be lodged in such a monument must be embodied in pretty, not to say arbitrary, accessories. Is this so? Is the only beauty in Saint Gaudens's Gen. Sherman to be found in the airily draped figure that leads his horse? Would it help Gov. Flower to surround him with angels or pretty girls on some allegorical pretext? Is there not here a narrow conception of art which may bias if not invalidate the diagnosis of the entire situation?

There are profound æsthetic possibilities in the treatment of even a commonplace face or figure. Scarcely an artist of the Renaissance can be mentioned who has not scored one of his greatest triumphs in portraiture. The subtle analysis of character, the discriminating choice of personal characteristics and their synthesis into a higher self that is both beautiful and true—this is a process which has tempted the greatest artists to the exercise of their highest faculties. This higher interpretation of personality is the highest type of idealization, one altogether transcending the possibilities of the allegorical figures with which the feeble artist is wont to surround his barren creations. It is doubtless true that our sculptors spend too much time "modelling trousers and hats," but the *artist* can inform these things with a higher meaning and beauty if he will.

Nor is the public quite indifferent to this higher meaning. Some statues wear and others do not. Slowly but infallibly this same popular judgment which is so much decried, puts one statue on a pedestal and casts down another, and all because the one has a beauty and a significance which the other has not. It must be remembered that we feel a good deal more than we can say, more even than we are conscious that we feel. The intellectual content of a picture may be all we talk about, all we can analyze enough to put into words, but half of the pleasure that we think we derive from the characters and the story, we really do derive from the art, from the poetry of line and color and the witchery of shadow which the artist has employed in their representation. Nor is it clear that we should enjoy these things more if we were conscious of the source of our pleasure and could talk learnedly about composition lines, values, and color schemes. The epicure is not less an epicure because he knows nothing of the jargon or the skill of the cook. We are dull enough, but we are neither so dull nor so perverse as we seem, and the popular insistence upon meaning in art, and its opposition to irrelevant prettinesses, is not unwholesome. It is but an expression of that requirement which is emphasized by the history of art in every age, namely, that the artist should find beauty and significance in the life and thought of his time. There is something the matter with

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him if he sees in it nothing but trousers and hats, to be represented grudgingly and atoned for by cleverness in unmeaning detail. "The poor little accessory allegory by which the artist tries to escape from the hideous and the real" is too often a confession of failure on his part to comprehend the æsthetic possibilities of his subject.

Finally, if we are not greatly interested in art, we are willing to become so. A course in the interpretation of art offered for five or ten persons in Boston Museum brings sixty applicants the first day. Try to interest people in mere artists' biographies and gossip about painters and you will accomplish nothing, for this is not art. Take them to art by the back door through the studio, with shop talk and craftsman's perspective, and again you will give them no love for art. The epicure doesn't whet his appetite by loitering in the kitchen; the tapestry doesn't show its pattern when seen from the workman's side. But if you can see what it is in a picture that makes it art, and can tell what you see, there is no people in the world that will give you so eager or so intelligent a hearing. H. H. POWERS.

BOSTON, October 12, 1902.

[We were quite aware that we had presented only one aspect of a subject which has many others. Everything that Dr. Powers says may be true, and yet what we said be not untrue. No one would think of denying the artistic possibilities of portraiture—even of portraiture in sculpture—and yet the world would have lost something if Michelangelo had devoted himself to it. The qualities of great portraiture, moreover, are impossible when the statue is modelled after death from photographs, and it would do no harm if our sculptors were oftener asked for something more specifically sculpturesque than a portrait statue in modern costume can ever be. There is a great deal in a word. Dr. Powers speaks of "pretty girls" where we spoke of ideal figures, but if the Venus of Milo and the Victory of Samothrace are "pretty girls," then no one need be afraid of prettiness.—ED. NATION.]

ETHICS OF THE WILDERNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is related of Georgia moonshiners who took a liking to some sophisticated summer tourists, that one morning the tourists found paper-weighted along a favorite walk the confiding allurement: "Ef you-all wants whiskey & leaves a Quarter on this here stump y'll get it."

Which promise held good upon test.

Very respectfully, H. O.

October 17, 1902.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Are you not in error in assuming that the Bodleian is a tribute to the enlightened management of Sir E. Maunde Thompson? As he has been connected with the British Museum since 1861, is there not some confusion in assigning him to Oxford?

ALBERT S. COOK.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., October 18, 1902.

[There is. We should have written the name of Mr. E. W. B. Nicholson.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Readers of the *Nation* possessing letters of Stephen A. Douglas which have a biographical value are invited to correspond with Allen Johnson, Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.

R. H. Russell announces a new volume from Mr. Dooley, and 'The Girl Proposition: A Bunch of He and She Fables,' by George Ade.

'Our Benevolent Feudalism,' by W. J. Ghent, is to be issued by Macmillan, along with 'Furniture of Olden Times,' by Frances C. Morse; 'Sun-Dials and Roses of Yesterday,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'Memories of a Hundred Years,' by Edward Everett Hale; and the first of four volumes of 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' by Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse.

Mr. E. A. Abbey's illustrations to Goldsmith's 'Deserted Village,' already shown in *Harper's Magazine*, are to reappear in book form. The Harpers will also publish directly Justin McCarthy's 'Reign of Queen Anne.'

Thomas Whittaker will soon have ready 'Theology's Eminent Domain, and Other Papers,' by the Rev. W. R. Huntington, D.D.

A new volume of verse by Nixon Waterman, 'In Merry Mood,' is promised by Forbes & Co., Boston.

Forest and Stream Publishing Co. will make a more and a less expensive edition of Mrs. Llewella Pierce Churchill's 'Samoa *Uma*, Where Life is Different.'

Additional publications from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be 'Grimm Tales Made Gay,' by Guy Wetmore Carryl; 'Penelope's Experiences in Ireland,' by Kate Douglas Wiggin; and a 'Guide to the Study of Reference Books,' by Alice B. Kroeger.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will publish 'Yachting: Historical Sketches of the Sport,' by Julius Gabe.

Arthur Upson's 'Octaves in an Oxford Garden,' decorated and lettered by Margarethe E. Heisser, is in the press of Edmund D. Brooks, *Minneapolis*.

Henry Frowde will extend the "Oxford Miniature Poets" series on Oxford India paper with Mrs. Browning's 'Aurora Leigh, Sonnets from the Portuguese, and Other Poems,' as well as with Longfellow's Poems in three volumes.

From Lemcke & Buechner is to be had the third edition of Alexander Schmidt's incomparable 'Shakspere Lexicon,' in two volumes, prepared by Prof. Gregor Sarrazin, who has revised and enlarged it in the light of Shakspere criticism of the past fifteen years. The new matter is in a supplement, but connected with the main work by references.

Prevailing good taste and decorative feeling characterize Margaret Armstrong's embellishments of Messrs. Putnam's dainty edition of Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese.' It is mostly floral and scroll work, and safest so, as the one figured drawing (for frontispiece) intimates. The coloring is delicate. The text is in brown ink.

Kipling's 'Just-So Stories for Children' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), gathered into a volume and illustrated by himself, confirm his reputation as a story-teller for the nursery. They are uneven, and the two non-animal tales about the origin of the alphabet and of writing are too elaborate fooling for the age addressed. Most of the verse thrown in could be dispensed with, and much of the legends attached to the illustrations (except as a hint to the parent who reads aloud). The designs are proof of visualizing with the pencil to a degree which Kipling's less imaginative father could, we think, hardly equal. There is choice, again, here, and at the head we should place the whale swallowing the mariner, at page 5, and the cat that walked by himself at page 207.

Mr. Peter Newell's return to the illustration of Lewis Carroll in 'Through the Looking-Glass' (Harpers) must be pronounced more successful than his similar treatment of 'Alice in Wonderland.' He has evidently endeavored to refine his Alice, with partial success—as much as was proper, perhaps, to be consistent with the companion volume. With chessmen he is altogether at home, and he has managed cleverly the designs for "The Walrus and the Carpenter"; particularly good is that of the eldest oyster winking his eye and refusing to leave his oyster-bed, whose counterpane has an appropriate design of star-fish. The fanciful borders are again printed in a pale tint, and the vellum-like covers invite clean hands on the part of the favored young person allowed to own this handsome book.

It has been said that the pension rolls of the civil war reach higher figures than its muster rolls; likewise, it seems probable that the heroes of historical novels will soon account for the full roster of the Revolutionary army. In 'The Maid-at-Arms' (Harpers), Mr. Chambers tells of the love of a Continental officer for a patroon's daughter. The scene is laid in the Mohawk and Sacandaga Valleys during the eventful summer of 1777, and the amatory portion of the tale is pleasing, although burdened with doubtful historical references and much valuable misinformation concerning that interesting people, the Iroquois. The "historical" ambition of this book and its predecessor ('Cardigan') are due to the fact that Mr. Chambers is partial to the geography of Broadalbin, Fulton County. The manners and customs of the patroons are somewhat startlingly portrayed, but let none say that they were wanting in deference to Mrs. Grundy. The patroon's daughter dons a man's buckskin suit for an evening ride in the forest with the hero, whom she had met for the first time on the day before, but the patroon counsels her to be at home "by the new moon rise," say about seven A. M. When the much-to-be-desired School of *Elementary Astronomy for Novelists* is established, Mr. Chambers should become one of its most diligent pupils.

The Sixth Annual Report of the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission of the State of New York, covering the year 1900, is but just issued. As in previous years, the for-

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mal report is accompanied by essays on forestry topics, nor are there lacking the fine colored plates which have lent distinction to this series. The elaborate "Forest Working Plan for Township 40," published last year by the Division of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture, is here reprinted, while of the new matter the most important is a "History of the Lumber Industry in the State of New York," by William F. Fox, the State Superintendent of Forests. This history is illustrated by a colored map of great interest, showing graphically the progress of the settlement of the State by towns, from New York, 1614, to Indian Lake, 1843. After much agitation, the game law was in 1896 amended to prohibit the hounding of deer. From the figures given in this report it would appear that the forebodings of those who doubted the wisdom of this enactment are justified. These figures "indicate that more deer are now killed by still hunting than were killed when hounding and jacking were permitted." Since the prohibition of hounding has also increased the proportion of does among the deer killed, and has added man to the list of animals shot in the Adirondack forests, the repeal of the prohibition is plainly indicated.

The third instalment of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana, 1847-1899' (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) comprises F and the greater part of G. Among the longer lists of works are, for native authors, those by Goldoni, who is still a live classic; Gioberti, Giusti, and Aurelio Gotti. There was a Galileo revival in the nineties, and Garibaldi's autobiography went into a tenth edition in 1895. Among foreigners, there was a translation of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' as recently as 1895. Such of Gladstone's works as were reproduced naturally had relation to Neapolitan tyranny; but his Homer was translated in 1881. The latest date for any of Gautier's works is 1892. Goethe's "Faust" shows numerous renditions, some as late as 1895, in which year, also, the 'Italian Journey' was revived.

A little work by Prof. Wilhelm Rein, 'Bildende Kunst und Schule' (Dresden: E. Haendke), is one of the many recent endeavors to cultivate in early life the sense for the beautiful in nature and art. It is distinguished, however, by pedagogical insight and a comprehensive survey of the leading thoughts and plans hitherto advanced. It is not so easy with us as it is in a country like Germany to provide a large amount of pictorial material of real value for educational purposes. Still, an earnest coöperation of artists, teachers, and publishers might accomplish a great deal, and Professor Rein's treatise is suggestive of the lines along which to proceed.

Two valuable contributions to the history of the South African war have been just published in Munich, Bavaria. The first of these is a volume of 314 pages, with eighty illustrations, entitled 'Unter dem Roten Kreuz in Transvaal,' by Dr. J. Fessler (Seitz & Schauer). The author is privatdocent in the medical faculty of the University of Munich, and conducted an expedition to the Transvaal sent by the Society of the Red Cross for the purpose of nursing the sick and wounded Boers. The record of his observations, while devoting himself to this humanitarian work, is exceedingly instructive. Richer in personal adventure, and therefore of a more popular character, is Franko Seiner's 'Ernste und Heitere Erinnerungen eines Deutschen Burenkämpfers' (Beck), of which the second and concluding volume has just appeared. It contains some entertaining anecdotes of Oom Paul, illustrating his peculiar humor. Thus, when the Jews complained that only half as much ground had been allotted to them for a synagogue as to the Hollanders for a church, he replied: "Well, that's perfectly fair; you believe only half of the Bible." The author praises the valor of the Boers, but criticises their lack of strategy and military discipline, due to excessive self-confidence and individual independence.

The growth of the Boston Public Library during the past year, as shown in the annual report, has not been in books and circulation alone. The agencies by which the books are brought within the reach of the public are now 128, an increase of 30. These agencies include 44 schools and 33 engine-houses. Nearly $50,000 was expended for books, "the largest sum ever spent in a single year," and the library has been enabled to obtain many valuable books and manuscripts, some of which are described in the report. Among the gifts specially noted are those "to the now very large collection on the abolition movement in the United States." We remark further the avowed intention of the trustees to commemorate in some fitting way the first half-century of this institution; and their expressed opinion that most current works of fiction "have little permanent or even temporary value," which has led to their diminishing the purchase of such books "until their value can be tested by time." In one month, nearly half of the 2,417 slips in the children's department were for Miss Alcott's 'Little Men' and 'Little Women,' Jacobs's and Lang's fairy tales, Mother Goose, and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' This raises the question whether Uncle Tom is not, in the infant mind, as unsubstantial as any character in nursery lore. The children will get small aid from their school histories to think otherwise.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for October contains an illustrated account, by R. H. Chapman of the Geological Survey, of a horseback journey across the northern Rockies, in the Lewis and Clark Timber Reserve in Montana. The limiting width of meander belts is shown by Prof. M. S. W. Jefferson, from numerous measurements of rivers in this country and in Europe, to be "eighteen times the mean width of the stream." Among the minor contents are Peary's official report of his Arctic work during the past year, and a description of the newly-established Reclamation Service for the construction of irrigation works in the arid lands of certain States and Territories.

Volume xxx., part ii., of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan (pp. 362), contains two papers of high literary value. One is a translation by Dr. G. W. Knox of the autobiography of Arai Hakuseki, the famous Japanese scholar of Yedo and virtual ruler of Japan, who wrote in 1716 when sixty years old. The other is a study of Bashō (born 1644) and the Japanese epigram, by Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain. Arai and Bashō were contemporaries, and both in their way representative of the best of the old Japan which has utterly passed away. Arai, born poor, became official scholar to the Shogun himself, a sort of "court preacher," so that, although without legal authority, as confidential adviser, through his master, he ruled the empire. Arai was scholar, poet, historian, economist, moralist, and statesman, and in native bibliographies the list of his writings fills many pages. His autobiography, which was prepared for his family, was printed only a few years ago. As a bit of the interior history of Japan, it has no match. By it a window is opened at the very centre of life and power in Yedo, and we see, not the imaginary Japan of foreigners, poets, and modern artists, but the real country and people. Arai, when in public life, succeeded the fifth Shogun (1681-1708), whose personal profligacy and superstitious practices and administrative looseness required the reforms of later years. A fanatical Buddhist, he became "the merciless protector of animals," often taking the life of a man for hunting a dog. On diplomacy and trade with China and Korea, the narrative sheds much light, and thus, both for politics and literature and for history, the work of Arai is unique. The paper on Bashō, besides being rich in flashes of native wit expressed in felicitous English, is a profound study of metres and literary methods, as well as of the limitations of the Japanese intellect; for the critic's frankness is equal to his scholarship.

—The fourth volume of Helmolt's 'History of the World' is the second to make its appearance in the English translation (Dodd, Mead & Co.). As we have already described the general scheme of the work, we shall say nothing now upon that score. The first volume, it will be remembered, dealt with prehistoric conditions, with America, and with the Pacific Ocean. Volumes ii. and iii., when they appear in English, will take up the countries of the Orient. In volume iv. Asia is left behind, and the scene of action becomes the countries of the Mediterranean. The task of bridging over the gulf between East and West was entrusted to that accomplished scholar, Edward, Count Wilczek, whose death, however, occurred before the German edition was completed. As his essay occupies the place of honor in this cooperative volume, we shall venture to single it out from the rest. Count Wilczek entitled his paper, which fills the first forty-five pages of the fourth volume, "The Inner Historical Connection of the Nations of the Mediterranean." This extensive subject he divided into four parts, each of which embraces several sub-headings. His main sections are as follows: "A Conception of the Mediterranean Race Derived from a Survey of the Mediterranean Nations," "The Part Played by the Various Nations in the Creation of the Mediterranean Spirit," "The Development of the Mediterranean Spirit," and "The Renaissance, or the Flower of the Mediterranean Spirit." The most striking feature of this thoughtful disquisition is its choice of the Renaissance as a culminating point in the development of the Mediterranean spirit. "The peculiar nature of the Mediterranean spirit finds its purest expression in the Renaissance, which comprises in itself material, moral and intellectual welfare, the beautiful and the useful, the rights of the state and the citizen, and the free unfolding of the individual. Rejoicing in the power of creation, it passed directly into the wider conception of European civiliza-

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tion." In the allotment of other important subjects, "The Rise of Christianity and its Spread in the East" falls to Prof. Wilhelm Walther; "Greece," to Prof. Rudolf von Scala; "Italy and the Roman World-Empire," to Prof. Julius Jung. The illustrations, which are clear and good of their kind, include several large plates. Of these, a colored reproduction depicting the battle of Issus as it is represented in the Pompeian mosaic at Naples is the best. In the case of the Iberian Peninsula, the survey extends to the recent loss of Spain's colonial possessions.

—An elaborate study of hysteria, on the theory that it is, in great part, a mental malady, was completed and published in French ten years ago by Prof. Pierre Janet, Litt.D., M.D., of the chair of philosophy at the Collège Rollin. This has been translated by the late Mrs. Caroline Rollin Corson as 'The Mental State of Hystericals' (Putnams), and is a study of the subject from a philosophical as well as a medical point of view. As Professor Charcot remarks in the preface, M. Janet found it "necessary to bring together these two kinds of knowledge and these two educations in an effort to analyze clinically the mental state of patients." The conclusion of his study is the provisional definition that "hysteria is a form of mental disintegration characterized by a tendency toward the permanent and complete undoubling (*dédoublement*) [halving, splitting up] of the personality." This is not an explanation, but an attempt to summarize the observed phenomena. Of course, the primitive meaning of hysteria was long ago submerged and has no connection with the actual state. This the author classes among diseases due to weakness and cerebral exhaustion, the physical condition being that of general under-nutrition, and its psychical state being a weakening of the faculty of synthesis, an aboulia (a lack of will power), with the field of consciousness peculiarly limited. Certain elementary percepts appear suppressed, and the tendency is to a division of the personality into independent groups which alternate or coexist. This asynthesis favors the development of subordinate ideas which grow by themselves under the cover of personal consciousness, and manifest themselves by very varied but apparently only physical disturbances. It will be seen that this condition is much wider than that ordinarily designated hysteria, and embraces the phases of double consciousness, here called somnambulism, as well as those states, dependent upon suggestion, which lead to subconscious acts. Many of them are due to associate neuroses, rather than to open suggestion.

—President Atherton of the Pennsylvania State College has caused to be printed for private distribution a comparative view of the Barons' Articles and the Great Charter. The several sections of the two documents are translated and placed side by side, in such wise that the Barons' Articles occupy the left half of the page, and the corresponding articles of Magna Carta occupy the right half. Such a comparison is most useful. Indeed, on a smaller scale it recalls Gneist's edition of the Institutes, with Gaius at the left end and Justinian at the right. One point in the translation deserves to be specially noticed by students of English Constitutional history. The fourteenth section of Magna Carta begins, "Et ad habendum commune consilium regni." In turning this passage into English, translators have usually rendered *commune consilium* "General Council" instead of "common counsel," the version of President Atherton. For our own part, we are quite prepared to accept the latter form, both because *consilium* ordinarily means "counsel," and because there is such a reiteration of *consilium* at the close of the section as implies a connection between the two words; and in the second case, every one translates *consilium* "counsel." This fact President Atherton points out, but he would somewhat strengthen his argument if he placed more stress upon the cross-reference. Then a paraphrase of the passage would run after this fashion: "To elicit the common counsel of the realm, regarding the assessment of a certain type of aid, magnates of specified grade shall be summoned. . . . Should all of them fail to appear at the fixed day, the business shall nevertheless be transacted according to the counsel of those who may be present." We are inclined to allow greater weight to the obvious meaning of *consilium* in the present context than we should to the fact that it ordinarily means "counsel," for there are certainly exceptions to this usage. President Atherton does not raise the point for the sake of a verbal quibble. The usual translation implies that a "General Council" had been definitely constituted in the time of John as a first form of Parliament. "The correct view seems to be that in this, as in most of its other provisions, the Great Charter did not so much aim to designate a Constitutional arrangement already fixed, as to provide for the future a convenient *mode of procedure*. It prescribed the manner and purpose of calling the Magnates of the Kingdom together, but gave no name to the Assembly, nor even seemed to know a name, or to think one necessary." To us this seems a sound view.

—Two important works in Greek lexicography have been published this year, one in Holland and the other in Germany. Neither is intended for the use of college students, but both have great value for more advanced scholars. Van Herwerden's 'Lexicon Graecum Suppletorium et Dialecticum' (Leyden: Sijthoff), as the name implies, is primarily a supplement to existing Greek dictionaries, and in particular to the Paris edition of Stephanus's 'Thesaurus Graecae Linguae,' nearly all of which was published half a century ago, before most of the now-known inscriptions had been found, and before the tombs and rubbish-heaps of Egypt had yielded more than an indication of their treasures of papyrus. In these inscriptions and in these private and public documents on papyrus, very many new words have appeared, and familiar words in strange uses, of which but a small part had been put into Greek lexicons. The two most important attempts, before Van Herwerden, to gather these new words and uses were made by the veteran Athenian scholar, Kumanudes, who in 1883 published a collection of words not in the 'Thesaurus,' which he had noted in his reading, and by an American young woman, Miss Helen M. Searles, who, in 1898, presented as her thesis for the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Chicago a 'Lexicographical Study of Greek Inscriptions.' Van Herwerden's work has 973 large octavo pages, with eighteen or nineteen articles on a page, or about 18,000 articles in all, and a cursory comparison indicates that one-third or one-fourth of this matter is neither in Liddell and Scott's Lexicon nor in the 'Mega Lexicon,' of which the publication was begun in Athens a year ago, and which was designed to contain every known Greek word. For a long time the reading of Greek inscriptions was left to specialists. They were collected for publication first in heavy folio volumes, too expensive for the ordinary college library, and too clumsy for familiar use. Now, however, excellent collections have been published in convenient form, both of historical and of dialectic inscriptions, yet only specialists have been able to read these easily. A scholar might know well his Xenophon and Thucydides, but be puzzled by technical terms and dialectic forms not found in literature. Still more has the ordinary Greek scholar shrunk from the careful study of the collections of papyrus documents. But now one chief obstacle has been removed by the 'Lexicon Suppletorium.' For the compiling of such a work few men are better qualified than Van Herwerden, who published a score of years ago an important tract on the evidence of inscriptions with regard to the Attic dialect, and has honored for thirty-eight years the chair which he has just resigned in the University of Utrecht.

—Kirchner's 'Prosopographia Attica' (Berlin: Reimer) is intended to include all citizens of Attica, whether by birth or adoption, whose names are known from literature, inscriptions, or coins, from the earliest times to the age of the Emperor Augustus. Those whose Attic citizenship is questioned, even the orator Isaeus, are excluded. The first volume, including K, contains the names of 8,935 persons, on 601 pages. The labor of distinguishing persons of the like name, but of different parentage, residence, or age, must have been very great. For instance, 85 men are registered by the name of Diocles, and 186 by the name of Dionysius. Possibly fuller information might reduce these numbers somewhat, by showing that some details have been separated which should be combined, but the compiler distinguishes most of them clearly. Such a register shows the necessity for legal purposes of distinction by the addition of deme and father's name. For the chief known facts in the life of each of his personages, the compiler (who really deserves the name of author) gives exact and carefully arranged and sifted references to inscriptions or literature. In the case of prominent men like Alcibiades, Demosthenes, and Aristides, these references occupy several pages. Family trees (*stemmata*) are given for many families, some of which, as those of Callias and of the tyrannicide Harmodius, are followed for nine generations. For the study of Athenian history, this work of Kirchner will be invaluable. Since it is limited to Attica, it will not supersede Pape's lexicon of Greek proper names. A few omissions have been discovered, but evidently great care has been exercised in the collection of Athenian names.

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AVIATION.

Travels in Space: A History of Aerial Navigation. By E. Seton Valentine and F. L. Tomlinson. London: Hurst & Blackett. 1902. Pp. 328.

Aerial Navigation: A Practical Handbook on the Construction of Dirigible Balloons, Aerostats, Aeroplanes, and Aeromotors. By Frederic Walker. D. Van Nostrand Co. 1902. Pp. 151.

Should the reader entertain the theory that books showily printed on calendered paper, with abundant illustrations, more or less splurgy, are not particularly apt to prove attractive reading, we cannot say that 'Travels in Space' will tend to convince him he has been wrong; albeit the nature of its subject renders it readable. It would be unreasonable to expect it to present the strange experiences of ballooning with all that life and reality that Mr. Bacon's 'By Land and Sky' did, last year, because that was a masterpiece. A glance at the volume will inform him that it is not a work of research, like Mr. Chanute's 'Progress in Flying-Machines,' from which, by the way, it copies extensively, almost verbatim, without acknowledgment, and to which it is vastly inferior in all respects in which the two works come into comparison, excepting in a very few details. It is later in date by more than eight years, and its scope is wider. The field still remains open, however, for a really workmanlike history of aeronautics.

The building of an airship is as much more difficult than the building of a steamer, like the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, as the latter is than the throwing of a trussed suspension-bridge across the North River. Consequently, Mr. Walker has judged a duodecimo of a hundred and fifty pages to be the proper sort of volume in which to convey the airship-building art. For, once problems reach a certain pitch of difficulty, and the more profound they are, the less is the knowledge generally thought requisite for attacking them. The first chapter of Mr. Walker's "practical" book is entitled "The Laws of Flight." The only statement of a law which it contains is the following:

"When a moving body is directly opposed by a *vis mortua*, such as a pressure or resistance like that of gravity, the measure of such *vis mortua* required to neutralize the force [of the moving body] and bring the moving body to rest must form the basis of the measurement of the force."

Thus, the persons who Mr. Walker assumes are to undertake the construction of airships, and for whose encouragement he has provided his handbook, are supposed to be in need of this information; while further dynamical science, he would appear to presume, is quite beyond their comprehension. Later in the book, it appears that they are persons who need to be told what a sine and cosine are. What Mr. Walker fails to tell them, but, on the contrary, implicitly denies, is that, with such an outfit, they will make great fools of themselves if they undertake the building of an airship.

Vessels to sail the air are of four types. The first is that of a machine with ascensional power, but with no motor. Such is a simple balloon or other aerostat, a kite-balloon, or a system of attached balloons. Much may be done with a skilfully managed balloon. Its great advantage over other air-sailing vessels lies in its comparative safety. Let any other kind of airship decisively come to grief, and instant death ensues for all its crew. But if a balloon bursts, not too near the ground, the calm and skilful aeronaut can take measures to save himself. This accident happened to Wise in Pennsylvania in 1836, at an elevation of 13,000 feet, but he was so far from being reduced to a pulp by the fall that, jumping up, he remarked upon the heat of the lower atmosphere, and, before many minutes had elapsed, had determined to repeat the experiment at the first opportunity. The fatal falls (other than drowning cases) have usually been from moderate heights, or have been due to the fright or inexperience of the operator. When Simmons met his death in 1888, he fell only 50 feet; yet neither of his two companions was killed, and one of them was not even injured. Capt. Dale's balloon in 1892 burst at a height of 600 feet, he and Mr. Shadbolt, a professional aeronaut, being killed, while two amateurs who were with them escaped unhurt; but experts opined that with proper management all might have been saved. This comparative immunity arises from the fact that the lower half of a falling balloon of the ordinary shape invariably cups into the upper half, forming the best of parachutes. Immunity, therefore, does not extend to aerostats stiffened with hoops or made of aluminium. A serious fault of the ordinary balloon is that there is no level at which it is in equilibrium unless the gas be confined, which is too unsafe. When it goes up, it retains the same ascensional force, and continues to be accelerated upward until it loses gas; and its momentum of perhaps a couple of tons moving four or five hundred feet per second will carry it up long after the gas has so swelled and spilled that, by the time it ceases to rise, it is much heavier than the air, and would come down to earth if ballast were not thrown out; and so it goes, alternately rising and falling until its ascensional power is quite wasted. Mr. Walker does not make this matter at all clear, but talks, as aeronauts are apt to do, of the level "to which the balloon must rise," just as if it were a closed bottle. A metallic balloon would be free from this objection, having a definite level at which, if tight, it would remain in equilibrium, or oscillate above and below it, indefinitely. Schwartz's machine of 1894 demonstrated that an aluminium balloon can be made sufficiently light (its ascensional power must have been about 7,000 lbs.) and can be filled with hydrogen; but it is very unfortunate that the inexperienced operator took fright and destroyed the airship, though not his miserable self, before it had risen high enough to show whether or not at its level of equilibrium it would have been able to withstand the pressure of gas within. The excess of gas would naturally be allowed to escape; but if this escape were too rapid, all the advantage of the metallic construction would be lost, while if it were not very rapid, the excess of pressure from within would become very considerable. Though such things are subject to calculation, actual experience is extremely welcome. To-day it is probable that such a vessel would be made of magnalium, not of pure aluminium. Somebody with a spare million could make an interesting experiment by combining the metallic balloon with a suggestion of the celebrated Monge that has never yet been tried. He was eminently a practical man as well as a mathematician of the first order. His suggestion was that of an air-snake, to be composed of twenty-five aerostats strung together, the vermicular or serpentine motion being brought about in a vertical plane by the transfer of ballast from one to another.

The second type is that of machines having both ascensional power and motors. Mr. Walker maintains that this is the only practical form, on the ground that this alone affords safety in case the machinery goes wrong. Plausible as this sounds, facts are against it, and reason too. Notwithstanding the thousands of ascensions that still take place in vessels of the first type for every one in a vessel of this second type, four times as many men have been killed since 1892 in ascensions of the latter type as of the former. It would be quite absurd to maintain that carrying a motor adds to the security of a balloon. That the addition of a balloon to an airship with a motor is a most serious source of peril would seem obvious enough, even if indirect effects of danger are left out of account. It may, however, be that a ship of this type supports a minor accident better than does any other. The breaking of the steering-apparatus of Count Von Zeppelin's great air-ship at its grand gala trial on Lake Constance did not prevent its accomplishing a little excursion and effecting a beautiful descent upon the lake; and M. Santos-Dumont, on his first ascension in Paris, broke his rudder, successfully landed, mended it, and continued his performance. Many engineers of standing have declared in favor of this type, which is the only one that has as yet attained some undeniable success; yet those who have most deeply studied the problem are opposed to this type. Sir Hiram Maxim, in a preface which he has contributed to 'Travels in Space,' argues that "it is not possible to make a balloon strong enough to be driven through the air at any considerable speed [meaning above six or seven miles an hour] and at the same time light enough to rise in the air." But he gives no assurance that this judgment is based upon calculations relating to magnalium balloons. Besides, it has been urged in reply, by Von Zeppelin and others, that a velocity of seven or eight miles an hour, or even less, would be all-sufficient for the peculiar purpose to which air-ships must be restricted. For, it is said, it is quite unreasonable to suppose that a vessel sailing the air should ever be able to compete with an ocean steamer, and quite ridiculous to imagine it should ever carry freight or many passengers. Its distinctive superiority lies in the fact that, moving in the three dimensions of space, it can never be intercepted or obstructed except by the most improbable chance. Its service must, therefore, always be to go where nothing else can go, without carrying or bringing back anything but intelligence. Its function will be to hunt up lost explorers, to spy out an enemy's doings, to visit the upper atmosphere, and in short to act as a reporter. Now for this business it is contended that great speed is needless. One can but feel, however, that it is highly desirable that the reporting air-boat should not be carried quite away from its course by anything short of a moderate gale; which would demand a velocity of at least twenty miles an hour.

The third type is that of machines provid-

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ed with motors, but heavier than the air. This is the form advocated by Langley, Maxim, Barton, Hargreaves, and, in short, the general body of those who have in our day studied the subject in a scientific manner. It is the only form which by any possibility could ever decidedly distance the "ocean greyhound" of to-day. Its real merits cannot be estimated until it has been embodied in some practical shape.

The fourth type is that of instruments neither possessed of ascensional power nor carrying any engine. To be sure, they may, and hitherto generally have, supposed a man to be kept hard at work during their trips. But how little this could amount to, as mechanical work, becomes manifest when we reflect that the more powerful of a man's muscles are unadapted to the long-sustained production of impulses at a greater frequency than, say, two per second. If, therefore, such impulses were to be relied upon to prevent the instrument from falling, since in the interval from one to another the machine would have fallen four feet, it follows that the labor the man would be called upon to perform would be equivalent to that of taking the instrument (say, a hundredweight) on his back and running up stairs with it at the incessant rate of eight feet per minute, or four hundred and eighty feet per hour. Each reader can speak for himself as to how many hours at a time he would contract to keep up that lively exercise.

It has many times been demonstrated that there is no very formidable difficulty in constructing an instrument weighing about a hundred pounds which shall lift a man, or even two men, up into the air in a fresh breeze, and carry them up into the wind. It is supposed that they could sustain themselves indefinitely, if they were skilful enough, without any particular expenditure of energy, in the same way in which birds ranging in size from the lark to the condor soar. A condor will weigh eighty pounds and will soar all day long without any sign of effort or of fatigue. Various facts go to support the theory of Professor Langley that it is by taking advantage of the puffiness of the wind (its "internal work," as he calls it) that birds soar; though it is not certain that other factors, of which three readily suggest themselves, may not contribute to the effect. It is quite certain that a considerable weight is one requisite. The most successful of the flights of Le Bris occurred one day when the rope by which his instrument (which was intended to carry only himself) became accidentally wound round a second man. Le Bris, not noticing what had happened, carried the man up two or three hundred feet into the air, and forward into the wind for a furlong or so, and could apparently have gone indefinitely further. But when he had descended sufficiently to set his captive passenger free, he found that without that ballast he could no longer fly. Thus far, however, no man has found it possible to acquire the necessary skill to manage such an instrument, in advance of getting killed by his blunders. The thing has not really had a fair trial. Le Bris was a very poor man, a common sailor, and circumstances prevented his practising on the water, although his machine had been specially constructed with a view to that. Consequently, before he could learn the art, his machine was smashed; and he lacked the means to reconstruct it.

Although Mr. Walker contemplates the construction of airships of the second type alone, yet, owing to this type reuniting the positive features of the others, his volume contains many facts pertinent to the construction of any airship. As far as our verifications have extended, his numbers are accurate. But nothing more inaccurate and unintelligible than his statements of mathematical rules and formulæ can be imagined. For example, on pp. 17 and 18 is an attempted explanation of the manner of calculating the elevation from the pressure of the air. Not until one has corrected several misprints, including the uniform printing of exponents as factors, do the difficulties of finding out what the man means (although the reader knows what he ought to mean) fairly emerge. They are not confined to any one sentence. A number has been obtained, and, being correct, there is substantially but one way in which it could have been reached; yet what relation there is between what is said and this operation, one cannot make out. So it is, in lesser degree, throughout the volume.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Wings of the Dove. By Henry James. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Virginian. By Owen Wister. The Macmillan Co.

The Desert and the Sown. By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Champion. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Typhoon. By Joseph Conrad. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Sea-Turn and Other Stories. By T. B. Aldrich. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Bylow Hill. By G. W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Way of a Man. By Morley Roberts. D. Appleton & Co.

In the Gates of Israel. By Herman Bernstein. J. F. Taylor & Co.

Readers pretty well *en rapport* with Mr. Henry James will be put to it to tell what his latest contribution to psychological fiction is all about. In the case, the most useful office of the reviewer is to say at once what some of it is about, to declare the situation. In doing so he may acknowledge a sense of indelicacy, even coarseness, much as if he were tearing away the enveloping leaves of a rose just to show its heart, or denuding a much-swaddled infant only to prove that it is all there. As we make it out (with some vanity of intelligence) the actual situation imagined by Mr. James for what he might call a study of the abysmal in human consciousness is this: An impecunious young Englishman, a journalist by profession, named Martin Densher, is in love with, in fact secretly engaged to, Kate Croy, dependent for a luxurious subsistence on "Aunt Maud," otherwise Mrs. Lowder, who dwells in splendor at Lancaster Gate. Mr. Densher, humbly conscious that his only talent is a "talent for thought," recognizes with rapture in Miss Croy a "talent for life," and becomes, therefore, for the guidance of their affair, a pliable instrument in her capable hands. At an early age she had divined that it is "of the essence of situations, under Providence, to be worked"; so we behold her in her great situation electing to conceal from Aunt Maud how far she and Densher have gone, trusting to time and her wits to "square" her invaluable relative. Appears upon the London horizon Miss Milly Theale, an American of the richest, already in love with Densher, and, at the dawn of life, in full possession of its resources, stricken with some mysterious and mortal disease. Milly is the "dove," and has innocently nestled up to Miss Croy, unaware of any relation between her and Densher. When she becomes aware, it is by indirection, with the view advanced that Densher nourishes an unrequited passion for her friend—a view that Miss Croy herself resolutely maintains, for in Milly's passion she has perceived the situation to be worked, whereby Aunt Maud may be squared and Densher and everything else she wants eventually secured to her.

Exactly what she is driving at nobody can know till he approaches the middle of the second volume, where her plan is explicitly stated. It is Densher who states it. The poor young man feels that he is being pushed in directions too mysterious, through a fog too thick, and demands light. Miss Croy fences thus:

"'Don't think, however, I'll do *all* the work for you. If you want things named you must name them.'

"He had quite within the minute been turning names over; and there was only one, which at last stared at him there dreadful, that properly fitted.

"'Since she's to die, I'm to marry her?'"

"To marry her," Miss Croy assures him without blinking. He presses her further: "'So that when her death has taken place I shall, in the natural course, have money?'" Not in the least flustered, she replies: "You'll in the natural course have money. We shall in the natural course be free."

The situation, thus baldly stated, seems rather monstrous, but Mr. James saves some from moral indignation and others from nervous shock by swathing his situation in the speculative, wrapping it in the conjectural, and protecting it with infinite precaution from direct judgment. He removes it from contact and conflict with moral preferences and emotional susceptibilities, and presents it voluminously to the intelligence as a subject with a wonderful variety of points for subtle disquisition. The simple or superficial has never engaged his interest, and he has always been blessedly free from a desire to proclaim the obvious. Events and their possible consequences attract him only in so far as they prompt conjecture about how certain imaginable people might face them, what they might conceivably do with them. To read him (in his later days) without mystification and utter dissatisfaction there must be a clear understanding on these points; the reader must be able to take a cheerfully reciprocal attitude. For certain sentences, even chapters, the faithful should not be lured into defence, but declare boldly that the author has taken sanctuary and may be as cryptic as he pleases. In 'The Wings of the Dove' he frequently retires so deeply within himself that the more he labors to express his meaning, the more involved and incom-

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municable he becomes, which, of course, makes the scoffer free to declare that he has no meaning to express. The part played in the drama by Sir Luke Strett, a famous physician, remains to us an unfathomable mystery; Aunt Maud has flights that we do not pretend to follow, and Mr. Densher's "talent for thought" leads him into regions hypothetical quite beyond a humble gift of understanding.

Kate Croy, with her "talent for life," is less difficult. Her talent for life includes naturally a talent for lies, and with the benefit of her history a shrewd guess may be made at the unnamed crime for which her father had been rejected by society. It is not improbable that Mr. James, among other dark motives, has a rather far-reaching tragic one, and that Kate Croy stands for a victim of destiny rooted in character, destiny not unconnected with an inherited proclivity for wickedness that may long escape detection and can not be defined. In the first chapter she reflects on the humiliating worldly condition of her family, and wonders why a "set of people should have been put in motion on such a scale, with an air of being equipped for a profitable journey, only to break down without an accident, to stretch themselves in the wayside dust without a reason."

From the last chapter we infer (under correction) that Kate has lost Densher, for whom her passion is beyond question, and has lost him because of the existence of sentiments deeply rooted in his nature and her own on which she had not counted when she entered him in the race with death for Milly's fortune. Like the rest of her family, she has broken down, and, however vigorously she may rally, can never shake off the wayside dust.

Heroes of fiction, being scrutinized, so seldom turn out to be men, that the highest praise bestowed by authority on 'Tom Jones' is, "This is not a book, but a man." Presumably, women novelists can not draw a real man, and men are afraid to. Mr. Owen Wister's 'Virginian' is a "sure-enough" man, a male being, whom the most earnest female advocates of equality of the sexes could never convert into a thing like unto themselves. He is also a person to whom the much-abused word charming may be applied without a blush. As a Virginian he is exceptional, for he has no ancestors or family portraits or old furniture or silver—nothing common to his native State but a soft drawling speech and a chivalrous attitude towards the weak who happen to be women. As a cow-puncher of Wyoming he is, however, a historical personage, as genuine as George Washington. For Mr. Wister says that, during the last decade, cattle-thieves and politicians have ravaged Wyoming, and between them exterminated the cowboy with his high heels, his jingling spurs, and his awful readiness to shoot or to be shot. "He rides," says Mr. Wister, "in his historic yesterday. You will no more see him gallop out of the unchanging silence than you will see Columbus on the unchanging sea come sailing from Palos with his caravels." Many good stories about the ungoverned cowboy have been well told, depending mostly for effect on external picturesqueness and thrilling adventure. Mr. Wister, in a number of short tales, and now at length in 'The Virginian,' has given him character, connecting him with the rest of his species, while emphasizing a differentiation due to his career. Several chapters included in 'The Virginian' have been published separately, and are given rather more space in the novel than they are worth to its principal motives—characterization of the Virginian. The New England relatives of Molly Wood, schoolma'am at Bear Creek, are hypothetical New Englanders, so fearful of compromising their respectability. Throughout the tale, Molly Wood is never quite good enough for the pains and persistence with which the Virginian woos her, but in the last crisis she justifies his choice. As a test of character for both, the final moment of conflict between Molly and her lover is excellently devised. The dramatic thrill in it is very quick, and the outcome so satisfactory that one realizes an immense fear of a disappointment. 'The Virginian' has, we believe, been one of the most popular books of the season; it deserves to endure through many seasons.

The motive of Mrs. Foote's tale, ambiguously entitled 'The Desert and the Sown,' is too fanciful, too remote from the common, to permit so much real tragic intensity as she has tried to attach to it. Some ideals of self-sacrifice are a little too fine-spun for everyday use, and that which animated Adam Bogardus first to wander twenty years in a wilderness, and again to deny his identity, seems to us one of them. At all events, if such fantastically ideal conduct is to appear supremely noble and extract sympathetic emotion, the presentation should be direct, pitched in a serious key, and kept in rather stern poetic isolation from common occurrences. Mrs. Foote's method of presentation is very defective—a matter for wonder, since in her earlier days she showed a strong sense of the value of form and knew how to use her subject for all it was worth. In this case she approaches her subject through garrison gossip and chatter about weddings and clothes, and, even after reaching it, she continues to offer the diversion of not very relevant triviality. It is given to few to expose a soul's tragedy coherently, and the most vivid impression to be derived from 'The Desert and the Sown' is that Mrs. Foote's aspiration has flown a little beyond her power of performance.

In the days, now long ago, when Charles Egbert Craddock wrote tales of strange and warlike folk who dwelt in remote mountains, engaging in bloody family feuds, in the illicit distilling of whiskey and in uproarious dances at the cross-roads, some good people were more shocked by the unconventional matter than pleased by the vigorous vivacity of her narration. Surprise when this supposedly bold, bad man turned out to be a woman was great, yet hardly greater than that experienced when, taking up Miss Murfree's latest book, 'The Champion,' one finds a chronicle, not of wild deeds done under the light of the famous Tennessee moon, but of a good little "printer's devil" whose bad companion persuaded him to enter a theatre without the preliminary formality of paying for his ticket. The consequences of the "devil's" irregularity were dreadful, and the activity of his conscience points unmistakably to a tendency of his enlightening occupation to convert devils into angels. The inferences, too, that he drew from strange things seen and heard behind the scenes are clearly beyond the mental range of a small boy whose days are spent in blacking boots, for instance. When he is safely out of his scrape, his cultivated conscience and mind together arrive at a reflection which marks him for a predestined prig. Mr. Gorham, the manager of the theatre, has helped the devil to clear himself of accusation of arson and robbery, but this kind deed, we are given to understand, was prompted by impulse, and was not an expression of character founded on righteousness; therefore, "In his observation of Gorham in those days, Ned [the devil] became more and more aware that impulse is a poor substitute for principle as a basis of action, and that although impulse may serve as an excuse for much that is fierce or weak, it detracts from the merit of what is good." Miss Murfree's moral excursion will not, we think, add to her reputation either as an observer or delineator of life.

Mr. Joseph Conrad, who has written some stirring tales of the sea, becomes in 'Typhoon' too obscurely nautical for easy understanding by land-going people. What the captain and the mate, the engineers and the two hundred Chinamen between decks were all about, individually and in relation to each other, while the typhoon was playing with the steamer *Nan-Shan*, is matter easily grasped, perhaps, by experienced sailormen, but surely most bewildering to any other. There can be no mistake, however, about the man at the helm and his business, and we cannot but think that he is clearly seen because he is so vividly presented:

"He had flung down his cap, his coat, and stood propped against the gear-casing in a striped cotton shirt open on his breast. The little brass wheel in his hands seemed a bright and fragile toy. The cords of his neck stood out hard and lean, a dark patch lay in the hollow of his throat, and his face was still and sunken as in death. . . . His head didn't budge on his neck—like a stone head fixed to look one way from a column."

It is a matter of common report that some fortunate men have followed the sea through a long life without encountering a big blow. Captain MacWhirr of the *Nan-Shan* had been one of these until the typhoon surprised him, and the circumstance is noticed by the author in a way that makes his accumulation of detail and technicalities, his toil and care for great effects, seem singular waste of time. This about Captain MacWhirr comes so naturally:

"The sea itself had never put itself out to startle the silent man who seldom looked up, and wandered innocently over the waters with the only visible purpose of getting food, raiment, and house-room for three people ashore. Dirty weather he had known, of course. But he had never been given a glimpse of immeasurable strength and of immoderate wrath, the wrath that passes exhausted, but never appeased—the wrath and fury of the passionate sea. . . . He sailed over the surface of the oceans as some men go skimming over the years of existence, and sink at last into a placid grave, ignorant of life to the last, without ever having been made to see all it contains of perfidy, violence, and terror. There are on sea and land such men thus fortunate or thus disdained by destiny or by the sea."

The collection of tales which have been written by Mr. Aldrich for magazines may be best described without disparagement as

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neat little nothings. The subjects are thin, requiring for their development neither force nor passion—very easy things for a practised writer to turn out without any sweating of the brow. The title tale is light comedy of a mechanical sort, and suffers from that blight of affectation or insincerity which affects many American representations of compatriots who are persons of fashion. A young man who betrays his genuine Americanism by saying to his servant, "If there's a bottle of Bass on the ice, serve that," and immediately becomes so Anglo-Indian (presumably) as to say to himself: "The boys can't have finished tiffin yet," strikes us as a young man with a false note in his character—one who must be living a double life, who, linguistically and otherwise, doesn't know "where he's at." "An Untold Story" is, from every point of view, the best in the book. The feeling of the scene and of the tragic circumstance in the garden at Budapest is admirably given, and one recognizes a poet in the observation of a group of children, curious, yet afraid, who "stood in an attitude of hesitation, ready for instant flight, like a flock of timid sparrows."

Mr. Cable's 'Bylow Hill' is a domestic drama, showing how one man's insane jealousy destroyed the peace and comfort of several of the most virtuous and amiable people in the world. The trouble appears to have arisen from the too great amiability of Miss Isabel Morris, who, under pressure, married Arthur Winslow, feeling that she was not too fond, and wishing she were "fond in the old, mad way the word meant when it was young." It may be supposed that Winslow is not quite sane, and that, therefore, in his passion, he is always cowardly and violent. The assumption naturally deprives the delineation of his jealousy of the interest with which its development may be watched in a man normally strong and courageous like Othello. The book is very prettily done up with large, clear print, wide margins, and colored illustrations.

Several men are prominent in 'The Way of a Man,' by Mr. Morley Roberts, and there is no indication of which man's way he wishes to celebrate. The book is an example of romance gone mad, and worth notice only because it may indicate that the tale of adventure in revolting South American states is in the death-throe. Bad as it has been, however, it might in decency have been permitted to die without positive ignominy. No subject is bad enough to be mauled and battered and travestied with the incoherent fury displayed by Mr. Roberts.

Much that is interesting about Jews (as Jews) may be gathered from the tales by Mr. Herman Bernstein, collected under the title 'In the Gates of Israel.' In the heart of New York they live, in the shadow of the Goddess of Liberty, yet moving and breathing under the personal supervision, as it were, of the denunciatory prophets. The marriage broker alone appears quite to escape their gloomy domination, but his clients do not appreciate the joke of his occupation. Mr. Bernstein's literary manner is direct and sincere, and he shows no desire to sentimentalize the sorrows of his people. There may be no English equivalent for some words he uses (Hebrew, Yiddish, Russian), but in the interest of the reader he might contrive to do without unpronounceable symbols.

An Introduction to the Scientific Study of English Poetry. Being Prolegomena to a Science of English Prosody. By Mark H. Liddell. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902.

We have an abiding and unflagging interest in all phases of all questions relating to poetry, versification, and kindred topics; we approach every new book on any such subject with a thrill of hopeful expectancy. Be it never so volcanically flamboyant or never so shapelessly hazy, still, at first glimpse, we hope that each may be the pillar of fire or cloud to lead us divinely out of the desert wilderness of our present state of English verse criticism. We do not shrink from the ugliness or thorns of the most repulsive weed in the hotbed of prosodial treatises, hoping to discover therein the beginnings of the mighty tree that shall overshadow with its branches and fill with its perfume all the garden of poetics. We have a soft place in our hearts for all attempts, however ridiculous, because there is merit in the effort. The world of literature needs light on the verities of English versification; let every one who feels capable, try to give us that light. We shall praise the intention no matter how inadequate the result. But here we have a book almost impossible to read at all. Many pages are defaced by the heavy sprinkling of pseudo-algebraic formulæ. For example, $X+HI^n+VF$ is the "formula" for poetry.

In the author's expression of what he means by "Human Interest" (HI) in littrature he says (p. 39):

"Macbeth goes not alone and unaccompanied to his final damnation, but draws us along as protesting witnesses, crying for the mitigation of his inevitable punishment—the very essence of tragedy."

This has a familiar ring to our ears, but it cheers us on our way. On pages 130, 131 we find, in what is said of "the poet," this really true and felicitous statement:

"Because he makes the selection at once, he does not do it either by chance or by inspiration. The happy coördination of the craftsman's physical activities is not essentially different from the happy coördination of mental activities which produces the poet's verse."

On page 172 we find:

"When English poetry is set to music, the impulses are given an artificial time-duration to suit the music. That it is an artificial apportionment of time is evident from the fact that a single hymn can be sung to a number of different tunes in which a given thought-impulse may have a number of different time values."

This just observation is wholly misused in the attempted demonstration of which it forms part.

At pages 140, 141:

"The general notion of poetry we thus obtained was: ideas normally formulated in the terms of correlated sound-group-images, possessing the general and abiding human interest of literature, and rendered æsthetically interesting by being couched in some recognizably æsthetic Verse Form. Or, stated as a formula: $X+HI+VF$."

This is the author's definition of poetry. It seems superfluous to characterize it.

On page 17, we find:

"According to this theory, an English unaccented syllable corresponds to a classic short syllable, and an English accented syllable corresponds to a classic long syllable. A great deal of printer's ink has been wasted in trying to show that this is really the case in English speech; in other words, that accent lengthens a syllable."

The misconception expressed in the last clause is not original with Mr. Liddell, and it is true that much printer's ink has been wasted as he says. The point is, that the question whether accent in English lengthens the syllable upon which it falls has nothing to do with the structure of English verse. A running pattern can be made with wooden blocks of two colors or with any materials of two distinct kinds. So classic verse was a running pattern of long and short syllables. So English verse is a running pattern of accented and unaccented syllables. The accented syllables in the scheme of verse-patterns in English *correspond* to the long syllables of analogous verse-patterns in Latin and Greek. This is not asserting or implying that an accented syllable is long in English. Not at all.

On page 97 we read:

"Alliteration is the only arrangement of impulses according to their articulation-character that has been largely used as a punctuating element."

What of rhyme? Rhyme punctuates, and the lines of a stanza are an arrangement of impulses according to their articulation-character.

With a sinking of the heart we view the heading of one chapter: "Nomenclature and Notation." Like most recent books on poetry, this proposes a new set of technicalities; as in all the rest, the new terms, if they mean anything, mean precisely what the old terms meant, and are longer and far clumsier than the old. Mr. Liddell calls words, phrases, clauses, and sentences "thought-moments," and uses the term "emotion-stress" for what is usually called tonic-accent or inflexion. After two hundred and sixty-eight labored and laborious pages we find: "Single rising rhythm, single falling rhythm, double rising rhythm, double falling rhythm," offered as improvements on iambic verse, trochaic verse, anapæstic verse, dactylic verse. We do not see that the new terms make us any better off, nor are they original. The chapter bristles with "may" and "might." This tentative presentation is justified. Is the term "wave of impulse" an improvement on "foot," or "five wave-rhythm" on "pentameter"?

"Here we part company," we read on page 304, "with classic prosody, and say farewell to 'iambus,' 'trochee,' 'dactyl,' 'molossus,' 'tribrach,' and all the unctuous fictions which the Renaissance schoolmaster has introduced into our English system."

That is as if we were to say: "From henceforward there shall be no more murders in the world; we'll call 'em all homicides."

In common with many other laudators of the English language and poetry as superior to all others, Mr. Liddell speaks of the old English alliterative poetry and of its rhythm in a tone of hushed awe, as if the mere mention of it were a talisman to dissolve all difficulties in modern English verse-study and to furnish light in all dark places. In common with them, again, he ignores almost entirely all forms of English versification except the blank-verse line. Yet, again in common with them, in expounding his examples and citations from the poets, he has no conception which features of the character of a passage belong to rhetorical effects and which to effects of verse-form. This appears all through the book and vitiates most of the deductions. The author's method

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is toilsome in the extreme and seemingly well-intentioned. His fashion, however, of attempting to illustrate the beauty of a citation by translating it into phrases of his own, which retain the general meaning while altering some of the words and their order, is wholly useless for the purpose for which he designs it, especially when applied to passages from Virgil, Milton, or Shakspere.

Sidney Lanier, in his 'Science of English Verse,' set forth that when we recite poetry we utter sounds, when we listen to poetry we hear sounds, when we read poetry the letters recall sounds to our mind, when we remember or conceive poetry we imagine sounds. This is good physics, good physiology, and good psychology. It is a plain statement of plain facts. It is universally accepted by competent thinkers. This does not prove it, but is a point in his favor. All the critics of his book agreed, and have since agreed, that, whatever it failed to do, it furnished in its chapters on poetic form and sound a point of departure for all future treatises. The book before us is an attempt to take the study of verse-form out of the safe province of acoustics, an attempt to argue the facts of verse-form altogether out of the category of objective realities, and to banish them into the nebulous realm of subjective phenomena.

Westminster. By Sir Walter Besant and G. E. Mitton.—*The Strand District.* By Sir Walter Besant and G. E. Mitton.—*Chelsea.* By G. E. Mitton, edited by Sir Walter Besant. [The Fascination of London.] London: A. & C. Black; New York: The Macmillan Co.

Readers of the Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant will remember the great scheme for "the survey of London" on which he was engaged at the time of his death. This project, according to his own account, fascinated him more than anything else he had ever done. It included a regular and systematic perambulation of London by different persons, with a view to the writing of a history not only of every parish, but of every street that possessed associations worth recording. There have been innumerable guide-books and historical and antiquarian compilations of various kinds, but since the time of Stow there has been no such elaborate attempt at exact description as that which employed the enthusiasm of Sir Walter Besant.

In these three volumes we have the first-fruits of this new survey. The mechanical production leaves nothing to be desired. This series will undoubtedly be of value to the traveller in giving him various particulars of literary interest which are not to be found in the ordinary guide-book, especially in the identification of the houses in which distinguished writers have lived. Here and there, too, may be found curious details such as the fact that in 1656 there were more than 300 watercourses crossing the Strand between Palace Yard and the Old Exchange.

Unfortunately, when this has been said, the special merit of these books appears to be exhausted. On the whole they are very disappointing. Anything like a complete survey would have supplied much fuller information. Each volume has one map and one picture, but there is not a single plan to illustrate the description of a building, even in the case of Westminster Abbey and the Houses of Parliament. And some of the omissions are inexcusable. Imagine a book on Westminster, running to nearly a hundred pages, without even a bare reference to the Westminster Assembly or the Westminster Confession! In guiding us through Downing Street, the editor does not take the trouble to give the number of the Prime Minister's house, nor does he think it worth while to mention that cabinet councils are held there. The Privy Council Office finds a place on the list of public buildings without the reader being reminded that there sits in one of its rooms a court of appeal which performs a unique function in binding together the colonies of the British Empire. Of the present Houses of Parliament we learn scarcely anything except the inept comment, that they "have been the cause of much of that criticism which is applied to the work of some people by others who certainly could not do so well themselves." The West End clubs are pointed out to us, and named, but, except in the case of the Travellers', nothing is told us of the distinctive features of their membership. The American memorials in St. Margaret's are recorded, but Dean Farrar, to whose interest during his rectorship they were largely due, is entirely ignored. There is a paragraph about the old Kitcat Club near the Strand, but, though it is stated that the portraits of the members were painted by Kneller, there is no reference to the origin of the "Kitcat" style. The National Portrait Gallery receives mention without a word as to its contents. Several other instances might be added of the undue brevity with which the authors have treated some of the most important buildings in London. It cannot be said that the omitted facts would be outside the scope of the series, for some of the descriptions and associations included in this survey are of recent date and trivial interest. Space has been found, for example, for a list of places with which the New Scotland Yard has telephone connection, for particulars of the Ladies' Dwelling Company, and for the bill of fare at the Duke of York's school at breakfast and dinner respectively.

Occasional repetitions give further evidence that sufficient pains have not been taken in putting the collected material into shape. On page 101 of the book on the Strand it is said that Long Acre, a piece of land consisting of seven acres, was granted to the Earl of Bedford in 1552. On page 108 we are back again to Long Acre, which is now mentioned as having been granted to the Duke of Bedford. In the same book, we find on page 21, "For St. Martin's Lane, see page 16," and a paragraph about the Public Library in that street. Referring to page 16, we discover nothing but a reference to the fact that the Lane once continued as far as Northumberland House. The fullest account of St. Martin's Lane actually occurs on page 109, with a description of its various buildings, except the Public Library, for which we are referred back to page 21. The same volume contains such errata as "Earl of Shaftsbury" (p. 41), the statement that the University of London is now in Burlington Gardens (p. 44), and the mention of "Sir John Lubbock" as the occupant of a certain house in Charles Street. The latter anachronism is the more surprising from the fact that on the very same page another house in the street is said to be owned by Lord Avebury.

Two sentences in the Westminster volume deserve a paragraph to themselves:

"On that black day, when England shamed herself before the nations by spilling the blood of her King, the scaffold was erected before this building, though the exact site is unknown. It is believed that the window second from the north end is that in front of which it stood, and that the King stepped forth from a window in a small outbuilding on the north side; he came forth to die, the only innocent man in all that great crowd, who watched him suffer without raising a finger to save him."

A Short Life of Abraham Lincoln, Condensed from Nicolay and Hay's Abraham Lincoln: A History. By John G. Nicolay.. The Century Co.

No word of explanation as to the principle that has controlled this condensation accompanies the above volume. Perhaps the death of Mr. Nicolay accounts for this silence. In the main the elimination, heroic in its proportions, has been of those parts which made the original biography a history of Lincoln's time. But much of the properly biographical matter has also vanished—fortunately, sometimes, as where we are spared the misleading account of Lincoln's religious opinions. The abridgment is made so well that no one ignorant of its relation to the larger book would suspect it of being one. It preserves, however, the disposition of the 'History' to gloze the homelier and less impressive aspects of Lincoln's life. The squalor of his early years is not rendered so sincerely as by Herndon and Lamon, and the wonder of his successful emergence from it is by so much diminished. That dreadful letter to Mrs. O. H. Browning about Mary Owens is shorn of its more draggled plumes, but the mistake of calling it "grotesquely comic" is not made again. The eccentricity of Lincoln's love affairs in general, following the Anne Rutledge episode, is discreetly veiled. So is the freak of September 22, 1862, when the anticipatory emancipation proclamation was introduced to the Cabinet with a reading from Artemus Ward. The statesman is not made to appear greater than he was, but of the shrewd politician there is less than just measure, and in general the presentation tends to such an effect as a statue of Lincoln in a Roman toga would produce. This is better than to exaggerate, as some have done, the rougher side. It seems not quite fair to relegate to anonymity the speech made by George William Curtis in the convention of 1860, which brought back Giddings into the convention and the Declaration of Independence into the platform. There is no retraction regarding Lincoln's mooted influence in favor of Johnson's nomination as Vice-President. Such influence is denied with emphasis and supporting facts. An absolute silence for the six years from Lincoln's Congressional term to the outbreak of the Kansas-Nebraska legislation is a too violent sacrifice of the historical to the biographical method. Two chapters, covering twenty-five pages, exhaust the most significant part of Lincoln's Administration—the steps leading to emancipation, and that climax itself. This is scant measure, but, on the other hand, there is an agreeable absence of Mr. Morse's acrid girding at the radical anti-slavery men, for whose ardent temper Lincoln's was too cool and slow.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary. Confessions of a Wife. Century Co.
Adler, Cyrus. The American Jewish Year-Book, 5663. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Atherton, Gertrude. The Splendid Idle Forties: Stories of Old California. Macmillan. $1.50.
Austin, Alfred. Haunts of Ancient Peace. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bain, C. W. The Poems of Ovid: Selections. (Macmillan's Latin Series.) Macmillan. $1.10.
Bangs, J. K. Bikey, the Skicycle, and Other Tales of Jinmieboy. Riggs Pub. Co.
Bayard's Courier: A Story of Love and Adventure in the Cavalry Campaigns. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bennett, John. Barnaby Lee. Century Co. $1.50.
Begtrup, Julius. The Slide Valve and its Functions, with Special Reference to Modern Practice in the United States. London: E. & F. N. Spon; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous Artists. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Bradford, A. H. Messages of the Masters: Spiritual Interpretations of Great Paintings. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Brown, Francis. The Bible for Children, Arranged from the King James Version: Century Co. $3.
Cherbuliez, Victor. Le Roi Apépi. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Connolly, J. B. Out of Gloucester. Scribners. $1.50.
Cross, A. L. The Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies. (Harvard Historical Studies.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Daskam, Josephine D. Whom the Gods Destroyed. Scribners. $1.50.
Die Disconto-Gesellschaft, 1851 bis 1901. Berlin: Printed for the Bank.
Engels, Frederick. The Origin of the Family: Private Property and the State. (Translated by Ernest Untermann.) Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Frieze, H. S. Virgil's Æneid, Books I.—XII. (Revised by Walter Dennison.) American Book Co. $1.50.
Gates, Eleanor. The Biography of a Prairie Girl. Century Co. $1.50.
Gilbert, George. In the Shadow of the Purple. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Hart, A. B., and Hill, Mabel. Camps and Firesides of the Revolution. (Source-Readers of American History.) Macmillan. 50 cents.
Hart, A. B., and Hazard, Blanche E. Colonial Children. (Source-Readers in American History.) Macmillan.
Ireland, Industrial and Agricultural. Dublin: Browne & Nolan; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Irving, Washington. The Legend of Sleepy Hollow. (Written in shorthand.) Cincinnati: The Phonographic Institute Co.
Jerrold, Walter. The Reign of King Oberon. (The True Annals of Fairyland.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Kelman, John. The Holy Land. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Le Feuvre, Amy. A Daughter of the Sea. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, William. The Government of Maine: Its History and Administration. (Handbooks of American Government.) Macmillan.
McMaster, J. B. Daniel Webster. Century Co.
McNeill, J. C. Mental Arithmetic. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Mitton, G. E. Hampstead and Marylebone. (The Fascination of London.) London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Newspaper Rate-Book, including a Catalogue of Newspapers and Periodicals in the United States and Canada. Pittsburgh: Nelson Chesman & Co. $5.
Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains: Beaumarchais, avec une introduction par M. Paul Bonnefon.—Mme. de Staël. Avec une introduction par M. S. Rocheblave. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50, each.
Riley, J. W. The Books of Joyous Children. Scribners.
Robins, Edward. Romances of Early America. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $2.50.
Selections from the Thoughts of Pascal, Translated from the French, with an Introduction by Benjamin E. Smith. Century Co.
Serao, Matilde. The Conquest of Rome. Harpers.
Sharp, Evelyn. The Other Boy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Shelley, P. B. The Sensitive Plant. (Flowers of Parnassus—xiii.) John Lane.
Sheridan, R. B. The Rivals. Century Co.
Six and Twenty Boys and Girls. Pictured by John Hassall, with verses by Clifton Bingham. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Slade, A. F. Mary Neville: The History of a Woman Who Attempted Too Much. Brentano.
Spofford, Harriet P. The Great Procession, and Other Verses for and about Children. (The Arcadian Library.) Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Stanton, F. L. Up from Georgia. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Strange Lands Near Home. (Youth's Companion Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Stuart, Ruth M. Napoleon Jackson: The Gentleman of the Plush Rocker. Century Co. $1.
The Temple Bible: (1) Proverbs, Ecclesiastics, and the Song of Solomon, edited by D. S. Margoliouth; (2) The Book of Job and the Book of Ruth. Edited by W. E. Addis. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60 cents each.
The Works of Rudyard Kipling. (The "Swastika" Set.) 15 vols. Rev. ed. Doubleday, Page & Co. $15.
Thwaites, R. G. Daniel Boone. (Appletons' Series of Historic Lives.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Wendell, Barrett. Raleigh in Guiana, Rosamond, and A Christmas Masque. Scribners. $1.50.
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